

### SECOND

## BIENNIAL REPORT

OF THE

NORTH CAROLINA

# BOARD OF HEALTH.

1888.



of the

Division of Health Affairs University of Morth Carolina



No. 1478

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## SECOND BIENNIAL REPORT

OF THE

# North Carolina Board of Health,

TO THE

## GENERAL ASSEMBLY OF NORTH CAROLINA.

SESSION OF 1889.

RALEIGH:
JOSEPHUS DANIELS, State Printer and Binder,
Presses of Edwards & Broughton.
1889.



North Carolina Board of Health, Secretary's Office, Wilmington, January 9th, 1889.

His Excellency Alfred M. Scales, Governor of North Carolina:

SIR:—In accordance with Section 2 of the "Act relating to the Board of Health," I have the honor to present this, the second biennial report of the North Carolina Board of Health, under the amended law, ratified by the General Assembly on the 9th March, A. D. 1885.

Very respectfully, Your obedient servant,

> THOMAS F. WOOD, M. D., Secretary and Treasurer.

#### MEMBERS OF THE BOARD.

J. W. Jones, M. D., President	Tarboro.
Term Expires 1889.	
THOMAS F. WOOD, M. D., Secretary and Treasurer	Wilmington.
Term Expires 1891.	
RICHARD H. LEWIS, M. D.	Raleigh.
Term Expires 1893.	· ·
W. D. HILLIARD, M. D.	Asheville.
Term Expires 1891.	
*J. L. Ludlow, C. E.	Winston.
Term Expires 1889.	
•	Salem.
Term Expires 1893.	
Prof. W. G. Simmons	. Wake Forest.
Term Expires 1889.	
· ·	. Washington.
Term Expires 1889.	8
*	Henderson.
Term Expires 1889.	

\*Chosen by Gov. Scales to fill unexpired term of Mr. Arthur Winslow, he having removed from the State.

#### STANDING COMMITTEES:

Epidemics	DRS. WOOD AND JONES.
Water Supply and Drainage	
Hygienics of Public Schools Dr. W. D. Hi	ILLIARD, MR. J. L. LUDLOW, C. E.
Illuminating Oil	PROF. W. G. SIMMONS.
Climatology	DR. J. W. JONES.
Adulteration of Foods and Medicines	DRS. McDonald and Tucker.
Sanitary Condition of State Institution	sDrs. Lewis and Jones.
Vital Statistics	Drs. Wood, Lewis, Bahnson.

#### SECOND BIENNIAL REPORT

OF THE

## North Carolina Board of Health.

REPORT OF SYNOPSIS OF WORK DONE BY THE NORTH CAROLINA BOARD OF HEALTH, MADE BY THE SECRETARY TO THE CONJOINT SESSION WITH THE MEDICAL SOCIETY OF N. C.

Synopsis of Work done for 1887-'88.

[Report from Thomas F. Wood, M. D., Secretary of the North Carolina Board of Health.]

The work of the Board is still confined to elementary principles. It was recognized at an early day that eventual success must be based upon the spread of the knowledge of hygienic principles, and without this foundation no considerable superstructure could be built.

Mortuary Reports from Towns.—No better instance of the slowness of sanitary teaching need be cited than that of the returns from our towns. Wilmington was, for a long time, the only one reporting, and it is interesting to recall how critically the reports from that town were commented upon by newspapers in non-reporting towns. The disadvantage seems to be enough at times to induce the Superintendent of Health to give up the publication of them; but time has shown the wisdom of persistently giving to the public the actual state of mortality, both as regards the actual state of things it portrayed and as an example to the other towns of the State.

In November, 1886, we were enabled to publish in the Bulletin of the North Carolina Board of Health, the mortality returns of four towns, viz: Wilmington, Charlotte, Asheville and Fayetteville, having begun probably in the order of date as named above.

In the December report, Raleigh was added to the list, but failing for the next three months to be reported. At the date of this report there are fifteen towns reporting, viz: Wilmington, Charlotte, Asheville, Fayetteville, Raleigh, Durham, Newbern, Goldsboro, Henderson, Washington, Tarboro, Salisbury, Statesville, Oxford and Greensboro. The basis of these reports is the record of the keepers of cemeteries, received through the keepers themselves, or through the mayor of the town, or Superintendent of Health, or whoever could be induced to give the statements. It is, then, believed that such reports may be relied upon as approximately correct, making some calculation for the irregular burials resorted to by the colored people and some whites who are driven to seek a spot of ground beyond the control of city authorities, in order to escape the cruel tax which the extravagant fashion of burial now imposes upon white and black, rich and poor. This has gradually been corrected in Wilmington, where a regularly organized burial place, under a responsible keeper, has been established, so diminishing the error.

Another source of error is also to be considered. In all towns there is a rivalry about the increase of population, and as we get farther away from the last census, the temptation to estimate the population has been great in all the towns. Wimington, by the census of 1880, had 17,360, but now a new estimate has been placed upon it. Following a practice in some other States, the population is estimated upon the record of registered voters. As ascertaining the number of voters this is multiplied by five, which is believed to be approximately correct. The fallacies of this must be apparent. For instance, the census preceding an election in

which there was great excitement by reason of vital issues, and thorough canvasses by good speakers, would be much larger than where there is general apathy. The tendency is to over-estimate population, and it may be safely considered that the mortality reported is under rather than over the mark.

The desire of the Board is to agree upon some estimate of population, and to impress upon authorities to see that no burials are permitted except upon the certificate of some physician or duly authorized person.

One other source of inaccuracy may be noted in the diagnosis of causes of death. All physicians are not equally careful in making diagnoses, or even equally competent.

Sometimes they state merely the last cause of death. For instance, naming "convulsions" as the cause of death, when the real disease might be "hemorrhage," or "asthma," the "hemorrhage" signifying really aneurism of the aorta, the sac bursting into the trachea. The most common cause is probably the post mortem diagnoses, which are made by Superintendents of Health. In few cases have they the time, or are they encouraged by the prospect of a fee to make a thorough post mortem dissection, to ascertain the cause, perhaps, in no other cases than such as are ordered by the coroner. The Superintendent, therefore, has to rely many times upon the narration of symptoms gathered from ignorant friends.

The rectification of the above errors we must strive for, the ascertainment of truth being the desirable thing, and not the purpose of making one town more healthful than another, numerically.

The number of counties reporting has increased from fortytwo in our April, 1887, Bulletin, to fifty-eight in our January, 1888, Bulletin, and the number is slowly increasing. The character of the reports need not be commented on here, but the desire on the part of most Superintendents is to do better, their success depending very largely upon the unanimity and intelligence of physicians in the different counties.

Epidemics.—During the past year no considerable serious epidemics have happened. In Wilmington, scarlet fever, which had lingered as a sporadic disease for a few years, finally gathered force enough to be considered epidemic; although there were hundreds of cases, there were not to exceed a dozen deaths from this cause.

Measles were unusually widespread in the eastern counties, especially Columbus and New Hanover, but even the remote causes of death made the mortality below the average in this disease.

Cerebro-Spinal Meningitis — After an exemption of nearly twenty years, quite a sharp outburst of this disease occurred in Buncombe, principally in Asheville, claiming the usual number of victims. It occurred also in scattered cases in other counties of the west, but not in an epidemic form. We are hoping to get a thorough investigation of the causes of the outbreak, as this disease may be fairly considered a preventable one

Small-Pox.—The whole country was on the lookout for this disease this year, and the Conference of State Boards of Health agreed upon a notification of the occurrence of cases to each board represented in the Conference. The State of California made the first report, then Louisiana, then Kansas, then Tennessee, then Maine, then Pennsylvania, then North Carolina, and so on in pretty quick succession, the port of New York being the source of importation in most of the cases.

In March, Dr. James Spicer reported by telegram that a case of small-pox had broken out, asking for vaccine to be sent. This was done immediately. We were then informed that the patient was a foreigner, who had come to work recently in a furniture factory in Goldsboro, and who had come in contact with fellow workmen and boarders. The

case was removed from town, and vaccination was resorted to. The promptness of action was rewarded by the restriction of the disease to this one case. April 11th being the 14th day from the outbreak, and the possible contact of persons with the sick man, and for the next few days there being no occurrence of another, all anxiety passed away.

Here is a note from Dr. M. E. Robinson, giving an account of the case:

Goldsboro, N. C., April 12th, 1888.

Thomas F. Wood, M. D.:

DEAR DOCTOR:—One Thomas Read, of Scotch descent, shipped from Glasgow on the 23d February last, on steamer Circassia, which he says had a case of small-pox on board which died. They arrived at New York and were quarantined for only nine hours and were all vaccinated and let loose on the country. I was called to see him on March 26th. On the 27th he broke out with an eruption which looked very suspicious. I called in Dr. Cobb. On the 28th called in Dr. Kirby. At first we thought it was measles, that is, on the 27th; on 28th pronounced it small-pox, and at once quarantined it. He is now about well—able to keep up and about the house.

We have been fortunate not to have another case.

Very Respectfully,

M. E. ROBINSON.

Suspected Small-Pox.—June 6th, 1888, a telegram was received from Dr. N. Anderson, the Superintendent of Health of Wilson, notifying the Secretary of a case of disease suspected to be varioloid.

WILSON, N. C., June 6th, 1888.

Dr. T. F. Wood, Wilmington, N. C.:

MY DEAR SIR:—There is a case of eruptive fever in town and there is very grave suspicion that it is one of varioloid; in fact, one of the physicians called in to see the case is not at all doubtful, but upon very careful enquiry as to history, etc., there is much doubt thrown around the whole matter. As an act of prudence, however, I have directed that the case be removed to the country and isolated. To satisfy the citizens

of our town, as there is an amount appropriated by the State for such purposes, I would respectfully request that you send an expert to-morrow to see the case.

Very truly yours,

N. ANDERSON.

Vaccine matter was promptly forwarded and the patient isolated. Doubts and apprehension still hung around the case and a member of the State Board was sent to investigate it.

The patient, a citizen of Wilson, had been discovered to have an eruption, which was pustular and covered the whole body. For some weeks he had not been away from Wilson, and then had been residing or visiting localities where there was no small-pox. There could hardly be a more difficult matter than to determine the exact nature of this disease. The pustules were distinct, round, pustular, in some places umbilicated. Inspection and inquiry revealed these facts: The patient had no initial fever, backache, frontal headache: the eruption did not begin on the forehead and pursue a regular course on the neck, arms, chest, etc., but was as much, in the beginning, on the legs and body as elsewhere; crusting, which was just begun, was not in the usual order on the face, but scattered about; the patient had been vaccinated within a few years, but the eruption dimmed the cicatrix, if there was any of a well marked character; the odor of the body was not characteristic; the sore throat was not that of small-pox. Altogether, there was hardly ever to be imagined a case so nearly like small pox not to be one, and a person with a like eruption during the prevalence of small-pox, would almost without question, be hustled off to a lazaretto. The deciding point lay in the fact that the patient had a hard-chancre still uncured, settling the diagnosis as one of pustular syphilide.

The announcement of this conclusion by the consulting physicians allayed the alarm of the community, rendering thereby, the sort of assistance so much needed, and which the State Board has been careful to apply. The management of panics, the arrest of idle rumors, and the restoration of confidence is hardly secondary to the prompt isolation of disease.

The epidemic fund of the Board held in reserve for the emergency of an epidemic outbreak has never been drawn upon, but is sufficient for all purposes; it is under the control of the Governor. The State Board, though, does not hesitate to send means of prevention with all dispatch to localities where it is needed. Vaccine we keep constantly within reach in a fresh state, but the Board does not attempt to furnish it gratis, as no provision is made for it. There is a provision for it in the general law, making the expense in emergency devolve upon the officials of counties.

YELLOW FEVER IN THE SOUTH—ITS EFFECTS UPON TRADE AND TRAVEL—THE DANGERS OF PANIC.

During the winter of 1887, there were rumors of a disease which made its appearance in the Peninsula of Florida, being infectious. During the early Spring of 1888, cases occurred in Jacksonville, which, before midsummer, were known to be vellow fever. The reports were very conflicting as to the nature of the disease, and Florida having no Board of Health to give authentic information, rumors of the wildest sort spread all over the country. The alarm which succeeded these reports could hardly have been greater at the immediate points of danger than at points very remote, especially in such towns and cities as had once been the victims of the disease. The most shameful panic overcame some communities, and the disgraceful shot-gun policy, with which the public is so well informed, was inaugurated as the proper thing to avert disaster. Men, women and children, fleeing from the enemy, were detained or refused admittance to towns; railroad travel was interrupted, and trade of all sorts hampered or ruined.

In our State, the greatest danger was apprehended as to the sea-coast towns, as they had had yellow fever once in their history, and were in more direct railroad communication with Florida.

Wilmington established inland quarantine in July and kept it up until November. Little could have been done but for the hearty cooperation of the officials of the Atlantic Coast Lines. Dr. F. W. Potter, acting by the advice and with the hearty support of the County Board Health, had placed at his command means adequate for the emergency. The Mayor of Wilmington, Hon. John J. Fowler, gave hearty acquiescence, and rendered excellent service in his official capacity, and as a private citizen. Two policemen, selected for their judgment and intelligence, were stationed at the Navassa Guano Factory, four miles from Wilmington, on the west side of the Cape Fear River. Fearing that this would not be sufficient, additional officers were sent, one to Florence, S. C., and one to Maxton, N. C., to detect the attempt of any coming by circuitous route from Florida, warning any such that they would not be admitted into Wilmington without being detained at an improvised quarantine station. The officials of the Atlantic Coast Line were as anxious to keep out persons from the suspected districts as the Board of Health officials, and they acted with prudence and forethought, inflicting as little inconvenience as possible on the through northern travel. A dining car was placed at a convenient distance from the town, and the cars properly fumigated by sulphurous acid fumes. These precautions excited considerable alarm among the ignorant and timid, and some suspects, a family or two from the infected district, having been detained for observation until they could be sent in the country, were suspected of having the fever, and the suspicion grew into a rumor, and a rumor into a positive statement that there was actually a case of vellow fever in Wilmington. Panic now became wide-spread, and the old popular delusion of burning tar-barrels was

resorted to, as a means of purifying the air and warding off danger. In the meantime, telegrams of enquiry were rushing in from distant towns, and the whole population for miles around was in a state of ferment.

During this excitement a vessel came in to the Cape Fear River from New York laden with railcoad iron. As soon as it was known that the quarantine officer at Southport had informed the Wilmington members of the Quarantine Board, according to his usual custom, that this vessel several weeks before had been in Jacksonville, more fuel was added to the flame. The Wilmington members of the Quarantine Board. in the regular discharge of their duty, visited the quarantine station to inspect this vessel, and while on board received telegrams from Wilmington, protesting against this vessel coming up to Wilmington on any terms, and even suggesting the impropriety of the members of the Board visiting the vessel. A close inspection revealed the fact that the vessel was in Jacksonville some days before the first case of yellow fever had been reported in that city; that she loaded a mile from the town; that her crew had not been ashore, and being mostly Scandinavians, a people more susceptible than usual to yellow fever; that several weeks had elapsed since her departure from Jacksonville. She had gone to New York and received a cargo of iron rails. The storage of such cargo is of such a nature that it can be easily examined, and also the entire hold of the vessel. Everything was found in good sanitary condition, there was no sickness on board, and the unanimous opinion of the Quarantine Board was that the vessel should be accorded free pratique into our port. In deference, however, to the respectable citizens who had entered their protest to her admission, we asked for an interview with such representatives of the people, with the County Board of Health, as were willing to meet us. Accordingly, the meeting was held, the state of the case as regards the vessel clearly set forth, and a free expression of opinion asked for and given. After this the two members of the Quarantine Board expressed their belief as to the justice of this vessel being allowed to come to her wharf in the city, in peference to a resolution, pratique was refused for the present.

The formal resolution was then introduced setting forth the reasons why the representatives of the several interests of the city were opposed to the admission of the vessel, endorsing at the same time the action of the Quarantine Board, and making themselves responsible for her detention.

In effect, this was an organized, but very respectable opposition of the Quarantine laws. It was all the more embarrassing because some members of the county Board of Health were also members of the Quarantine Board, and the law sets forth that maritime quarantine "shall not be interfered with, but officers of the local and State boards shall render all aid in their power to quarantine officers in the discharge of their duties, upon request of the latter."

Furthermore, it was admitted by the members of the Quarantine Board present, that the means of disinfecting vessels at Southport were of the most primitive character and not at all adequate to the complete sanitary preparation of vessels. It was very evident in summing up the whole discussion for and against, that as citizens and health officers we were not only performing the functions of sanitary experts, but were called upon also to manage a panic which was threatening to disorganize the trade of Wilmington. It seemed prudent, therefore, to allow the objectionable vessel to remain at her anchorage at the station, until the community had reached a calmer and more reasoning state of mind. The hardship to the vessel was great, and in reality her expenses should not have, and would not have fallen so heavily, had there been at the station efficient means of sanitation. This description of the difficulties of a panic serve to demonstrate the necessity of State action to save our commerce from unjust losses by the erection of a proper  quarantine, of which there will be mention under the head of quarantinein another part of this report.

#### A REPORTED CASE OF YELLOW FEVER.

When the panic was at its height, there appeared in the public daily press a dispatch from a member and officer of the County Board of Health of Pender, stating that a case of yellow fever had occurred in that county.

Dr. W. T. Ennett, the Superintendent of Health of Pender county, was telegraphed to, and in addition to his telegram in reply saying that he had received no information, sent also the following:

Burgaw, N. C., September 19th, 1888.

Dr. Thos. F. Wood:

DEAR SIR:—I received your telegram this morning and answered at once. We had heard nothing of the case till we read your telegram. I wrote at once to Dr. Murphy asking him the particulars, when I hear from him I will notify you at once, or, if he does not reply, had I not better go and examine the case.

Respectfully and truly.

W. T. ENNETT.

Later the following in substance was received from the Superintendent of Health, Dr. Ennett:

He found the man Anderson [suspected to have the yellow fever] lives twelve miles from Burgaw, beyond the Northeast River, and he was then up and out of doors and eating regularly and seeing his neighbors that day, they were as much surprised as I at the report. From what I could gather, I decided it was "Hemorrhagic Malarial Fever."

This added more fuel to the flame, and telegrams came pouring in, making enquiry as to the genuineness of the case. The Secretary of the Board secured the valuable services of Dr. William J. Love, of Wilmington, an expert in yellow fever, he having served during the epidemic in Wil-

mington in 1862, and having suffered from the disease in , his own person, to visit the spot and determine the truth or falsity of the report.

The following is his report:

WILMINGTON, N. C., September 20th, 1888.

Dr. T. F. Wood, Secretary North Carolina Board of Health:

SIR :- I have the honor to report, that in obedience to your instructions. I visited Burgaw in order to investigate a case supposed to be vellow fever. The patient lives ten miles east of the town, across the Northeast Cape Fear River. He was taken with a chill at 8 p. m. on the 7th instant. During the night he was affected with nausea and vomited blood. The vomiting continued at intervals until the afternoon of the 9th assuming the character of black vomit. The alvine dejecta indicated hemorrhage. There was no epistaxis nor hematuria. Upon the subsidence of the vomiting, icterus presented itself. The temperature at no time went beyond 102 degrees F. There was some frontal headache and pain over hepatic region and in the abdomen, but no uneasiness about the loins and lower extremities. These points were kindly given me by the physician in charge. I saw the case this morning. The icteric hue of the skin had nearly subsided and the adnata presented no discoloration whatever. There was no fever and the man was able to be up and dressed. He is twenty-seven years of age, healthy and temperate. His last attack of sickness, pneumonia, occurred six years ago. His diet was the usual one on the 7th inst.

My diagnosis was paludal fever accompanied by gastric and intestinal hemorrhage, these being points, in a yellow fever panic, sufficient to excite the alarm and suspicions of the community. I was particularly impressed with the apparent insalubrity of the residence, situated in a neck between the river and a creek with cleared swamps to the east, south and west, embracing three-fourths of a circle, but the patient stated that he had very little sickness in his family, a remark corroborated by the medical man in attendance.

The patient had not been exposed to yellow fever infection, his only trip away from home having been a visit to Wilmington three weeks ago, his stay consuming but a day or two.

Very respectfully yours,

WM. J. LOVE.

Doubtless the reliance placed in this report served to allay excitement.

It is appropriate, at this point, to call attention to the

necessity of physicians and others holding quasi positions as custodians of the public health. The eyes of the community are upon them, and any indiscreet or premature statement may result in widespread harm, as in the case above referred to. Letters of enquiry from railroad officials and boards of health of distant States, showed how fast the bad news had travelled, and how eager every one was to know what the State Board was doing about it. There seems to be no remedy for such indiscretion, except the reaction which rebounds upon the unfortunate or guilty perpetrator of premature or ill-judged opinions.

There is a proper way to proceed in reporting suspected cases, and it is clearly set forth by the law. It is the duty of every member of the County Boards of Health to report promptly to the Superintendent of Health of his county, any case of suspected pestilential disease. It is the duty of the Superintendent to examine into such cases and report them promptly to the Secretary of the State Board of Health, in order that proper action may be taken to prevent its spread, and to control panic in the business world.

In this connection the State Board makes the suggestion that there should be

Compulsory Notification of Contagious and Infectious Diseases dangerous to the Public Health.

Prompt action is the only course of safety in dealing with pestilential diseases. The early detection of a case, and prompt isolation promises success. All physicians do not see the necessity for such action, or do not recognize the policy of prompt notification: some even act upon the principle that their cases are matters of private concern, with which public health officers have nothing to do, so that to obtain the best results, there should be a uniform rule of action.

THE COLONIZATION OF YELLOW FEVER REFUGEES IN
HENDERSONVILLE

The following correspondence was received at this office in reference to the colonization of refugees from Jacksonville in the mountain regions of the State:

[Telegram.]

"Jacksonville, Fla., Sept. 4, 1888.

Thos. F. Wood, Secretary State Board of Health:

We have wired Gov. Scales, at the suggestion of Surgeon General Hamilton, M. H. S., for permission to send our people, not exceeding five hundred, who have means to go, to places in the mountains open to them. What restrictions will State Board of Health impose? Can you suggest names of places you would recommend, and the number they can accommodate?

NEAL MITCHELL, M. D., President Board of Health, D. T. GERAW,

Acting Mayor,

P. McQUAID,

Acting President Auxiliary Association."

The following from Gov. Scales:

[Telegram.]

"Greensboro, N. C., Sept. 9th, 1888.

Dr. Wood, Secretary State Board Health, Wilmington, N. C.:

Surgeon General Hamilton, M. H. S., advises authorities of Jacksonville to ask me if their citizens, not exceeding 500 in number, will be permitted to go to the mountains of our State to such places as are willing to receive them? What answer shall I make? Answer here, at once.

A. M. SCALES,

Governor."

Knowing that there were some towns willing to admit refugees from Jacksonville. I telegraphed Dr. W. D. Hilliard, of Asheville, member of the North Carolina Board of Health, to communicate with the towns in the mountain sections, ascertain what places would be willing to receive them, in what numbers, and under what restrictions:

[Telegram.]

ASHEVILLE, N. C., September 7th, 1888.

Thos. F. Wood:

Hendersonville will receive five hundred. Hickory gives no number. W. D. HILLIARD.

[Telegram.]

MURPHY, N. C., September 6th, 1888.

Thos. F. Wood:

We can furnish local accommodations for one hundred, and as many more as have tents.

DR. ABERNATHY.

Superintendent of Health of Cherokee Co.

Pending answers from Superintendents of Health of the mountain counties willing to move in the matter, and awaiting their decision, the following was received:

[Telegram.]

Washington, D. C., September 7th, 1888.

Dr. Thos. F. Wood, Secretary State Board of Health, Wilmington:

What conclusion have you reached in regard to allowing cars of refu-

gees to go to the mountains of North Carolina.

HAMILTON, Surgeon General.

In the meantime, the following came:

[Telegram.]

ASHEVILLE, September 8th, 1888.

Dr. Thos. F. Wood:

Waynesville extends cordial invitation.

W. D. HILLIARD.

The following letter from Dr. L. L. Johnson, Superintendent of Health of Henderson county, in reply to telegram, was received:

Dr. Wood, Wilmington, N. C., Secretary State Board of Health:

Dear Doctor:—Yours of September 7th received. In reply I will say, that a telegram was received at Hendersonville from the President of the Board of Health, of Jacksonville, Florida, asking that they might send as many as six hundred of their people to this county. After consultation with the physicians and town council, we decided to throw our doors open to them. I require the clothing to be fumigated. Our

town is 2,252 feet above sea-level, and we cannot think that there is the least danger of any contagion. I will write you in regard to the matter if anything should occur.

Very respectfully,

L. L. JOHNSON, M. D., Superintendent of Health of Henderson Co., N. C.

In reply to a telegram to the Mayor of Hendersonville (the County Superintendent of Health, Dr. Johnson living in the country and not accessible by telegraph), asking what restrictions the County Board of Henderson had placed upon the refugees, the following was received:

Letter not received; have made no restrictions; should we make any? if so, what, and how?

J. P. RICKMAN.

In reply to this, instruction was sent that the refugees, on arrival, should be paroled not to leave Hendersonville under ten days; that they should be kept under surveillance in order to prevent their entrance into towns where their presence would be objectionable.

The following from Asheville, in response to telegram, asking if that city would quarantine against Florida refugees:

Asheville, N. C., September 6th, 1888.

T. F. Wood:

Am instructed by Mr. Harkins, Mayor of Asheville, to say there has not been, nor is there, any quarantine against any one. Hickory and Hendersonville extend cordial invitations. Other points not yet heard from.

W. D. HILLIARD.

After ascertaining what towns would be willing to receive the refugees, telegrams were sent the authorities in Jacksonville, and the following is the reply: Jacksonville, Florida, September 7th, 1888.

Thanks for information furnished. Will wire places you name for number they can accommodate. As we understand it, the State Board of Health of your State will not impose any obstacles on our people going to such places in your State as offered to receive them. Is this correct? Answer.

P. McQUADE, Acting President.

Such restrictions as were enjoined upon the Hendersonville Board of Health were communicated to Mr. McQuade.

The following is a letter of instruction to Dr. J. F. Abernathy, Superintendent of Health of Cherokee county, with his reply. (This letter was in substance what was written to each town offering to take refugees into their hospitable borders.)

#### NORTH CAROLINA BOARD OF HEALTH, SECRETARY'S OFFICE,

WILMINGTON, September 7th, 1888.

Dr. J. F. Abernathy, Supt. of Health, Cherokee Co.:

Dear Doctor:—I understand that Murphy is willing to receive one hundred people from Jacksonville, Fla., refugees from the yellow fever. Please state fully how they will be cared for, and what restrictions will be imposed upon them. You are aware that by the terms of the law, you must state the restrictions to be imposed upon them, and that you act by advice of the County Board of Health. Please summon the Board of Health, and determine upon rules and send me particulars. I would insist that all who take refuge in your country shall be paroled not to go to towns that have not extended a welcome, and use what watch you can to prevent it. Telegraph at expense of State Board of Health, when necessary.

Yours, very truly,

THOMAS F. WOOD,

What altitude is Murphy above sea?

MURPHY, N. C., Sept. 10th, 1888.

Dr. Thos. F. Wood:

Dear Sir:—Your letter before me seems to be one of inquiry—to know what manner of comforts we can give the Jacksonville refugees, and what precautionary measures had or would be made for the people's protection?

1st. We can give them good second-class hotel fare, good, comforta-

ble beds, good diet, and all the fresh air and pure water they or any one else could desire. Any more than one hundred refugees would have trouble to find a lodging place, owing to the immense influx from other States, and there is no good reason to think that our hotels and boarding houses will be vacated of their transient boarders before late autumn. Nevertheless, if more were to come than we could accommodate as we wish to, we would not in any way cast them off.

2d. I have consulted from time to time with the Board of Health, and what I have done has been sanctioned by the Board. I have the best authority to believe that we run no considerable risk. The Board of Health will meet them at the train and exchange all the passengers. and any one who, in the opinion of the Board, is suspicious or unsafe, will be isolated immediately.

The altitude of Murphy is 1,634 feet, although we can ascend to a greater height in half a mile of Murphy. Thermometer shows 66° in open air. Nights very cool; days pleasant.

J. F. ABERNATHY, Co. Supt. of Health.

Some entirely new questions arose during the past summer, as partially related in above correspondence, as to the proper disposition to make of persons taking refuge in our State from Jacksonville, Florida. The depopulation of the last named city being decided upon, the next anxious question was, what towns will receive them? Extensive correspondence and telegraphing finally revealed the fact, that the towns of Murphy, Hendersonville, and several others were willing to allow these refugees to take up their abode in their midst.

The question naturally arose, who had authority to permit this colonization of persons from a pestilence stricken district. The only section of our law bearing upon this point was that found in Section 9 of the law relating to the public health, which is as follows:

SEC. 9. Inland quarantine shall be under the control of the County Superintendent of Health, who, acting by the advice of the local board, shall see that diseases dangerous to the public health, viz: small-pox, scarlet fever, yellow fever and cholera, shall be properly quarantined or isolated at the expense of the city, or town, or county in which they occur. Any person violating the rules promulgated on this subject

shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction thereof shall be fined or imprisoned at the discretion of the court. In case the offender be stricken with disease for which he is quarantinable, he will be subject to the penalty on recovery, unless in the opinion of the super-intendent it should be omitted. Quarantine of ports shall not be interfered with, but the officers of the local and State Boards shall render all the aid in their power to quarantine officers in the discharge of their duties, upon the request of the latter.

It was ascertained that Dr. L. L. Johnson, the Superintendent of Health of Henderson county, after consultation with the Henderson Board of Health, signified his willingness to allow the refugees to make their homes in the town of Hendersonville. Accordingly, on the \_\_ day of September a train containing 260 persons were landed in the town, under the care of Surgeon Guiteras, of the Marine Hospital Service, and they were at once distributed and cared for. It is very remarkable to record that no cases occurred after they arrived in Hendersonville, and although ten were sick, only two died; thus justifying the confidence the County Board of Health had in the salubriousness of their climate and the entire safety of the citizens in assuming such an apparent risk.

Hendersonville is a town of 1,500 inhabitants, situate in a mountainous region, 2,252 feet above the sea level. The drainage of the town is considered good, but there is no sewerage or public water supply. Every year the visitors, who are seeking health and recreation, amount to as many as 600 at one time, and for four months of 1888, from 2,000 to 3,000. The town has an extensive reputation for salubrity, and on this account is growing in importance year by year.

The courage and good faith of the people in rendering service to the afflicted was manifested in the fact that eight families took numbers of them into their own homes, varying in numbers from three upwards. The largest number collected in one house was fifty, the smallest three. Doubtless the kindness of the citizens of Hendersonville will long be cherished, and probably the Board of Health would be willing to extend an invitation under like conditions in the future. This, like all questions concerning the public health, involves the greatest good to all, and must be considered solely by this standard. It is well enough for a town, elevated 2,252 feet, to think themselves secure, but while enjoying this security, the danger to their neighbors must be duly considered.

In this case, consultation by telegraph was kept up for several days, and the lack of proper preparation, after the refugees were received, caused considerable uneasiness in Charleston and Wilmington, so that these cities quarantined against Hendersonville. This precaution was none too soon, as two of the refugees came to Wilmington seeking admission and were properly turned away. The practical experiment opened up the true gravity of admitting these refugees to any part of the State, and the Board of Health decided to discountenance any further admission of them into the State, without they were properly cared for in a hospital camp, under sufficient guard, and in this opinion Gov. Scales promptly acquiesced, and the authorities in Florida and towns desiring to offer hospitality were duly notified.

In view of this experience, the question may be properly asked, what additional safeguards should be inaugurated to prevent a similar risk in the future? The State Board makes this suggestion: That no colonization should be permitted of persons from a pestilence stricken district, except upon express permission of the State Board of Health and the approval of the Governor, and only then when the money for maintaining such a camp is guaranteed by responsible parties immediately interested; and further, that strict rules and regulations should be specified and established by the State Board, controlling the movement of all persons connected with such camp. Our humanity may prompt us to

offer succor to distress, but it should not betray us into any action which will endanger other communities.

From the course of the epidemic in Florida during the spring, summer and fall of 1888, there are grave apprehensions that we will have a repetition of the same serious state of things the next year, and prompt means should be taken to enable the Board of Health to put into execution a reasonable quarantine for 1889.

#### MARITIME QUARANTINE.

The dangers of the importation of pestilential diseases through our seaport towns is increasing yearly with the increase of railroads piercing the interior of our State. Especially is this true as regards Wilmington. The quarantine law governing the latter port is as good as could be desired, but the means at the disposal of the Quarantine Board are limited.

It will be remembered, that Southport at the mouth of the Cape Fear River, the entrepot of Wilmington, is located in a land-locked bay, 25 miles from that city. The roads on either side of the river are so bad that it practically bars the escape of persons detained at quarantine, and the river is easily guarded. The roadstead at the quarantine station is good, and large vessels can load and unload at this point. There could hardly be a better location for a hospital or for the establishment of a disinfecting station. The defects are, there is no hospital, and there is no wharf at which vessels could be moored to prevent upsetting when emptied of the cargoes for disinfection. An appropriation for this purpose is a commercial necessity, to prevent the prolonged detention of vessels. For many years the quarantine service of this port has been so well managed, that no cases of pestilential disease have been admitted into Wilmington, but the State should see that her chief port is not hampered by a management, which, for lack of modern outfit for properly disinfecting vessels and isolating persons, is sometimes a hardship to vessel owners. The Board of Health of Wilmington have always acted in harmony with the Quarantine Board, and they see the necessity of some action by the next General Assembly in appropriating money for a new and improved outfit.

The following correspondence from Dr. W. G. Curtis, who for years has acted so acceptably as quarantine officer at Southport, we give in this connection:

QUARANTINE STATION, SOUTHPORT, November 16th, 1888.

DR. THOS. F. WOOD, Secretary State Board of Health:

DEAR SIR:—By section 2876, chapter 24, of The Code of North Carolina, it is provided, among other things, that the State Board of Health "shall direct the attention of the State to such sanitary matters as in their judgment affect the industry, prosperity, health and lives of the citizens of the State."

North Carolina possesses a salubrious climate, and her natural advantages for healthfulness are unexcelled by any State in the Union. But there is always a possibility of danger from without, and during the past season, there has been a probability of danger so imminent as seriously to alarm our citizens. Commerce brings us in intimate relations with all the world, and with many places where pestilence walketh by noonday and seeks and spares not the most healthful localities. The avenues of approach are many, and with increasing commerce, and increasing prosperity, dangers accumulate and the avenues have to be more strictly guarded.

The principal avenue by which dangerous diseases may approach our citizens is the Cape Fear River. It may be said, I think, without fear of contradiction, that if the quarantine service at the mouth of this great river were relaxed or discontinued, there would follow constant invasions of pestilential diseases, and prosperity would cease. The productions of North Carolina would seek other outlets. Our citizens would not expose themselves to dangers arising from pestilence. They would have no confidence in our merchants, and would rightly think that such carelessness must extend to all business transactions. The importance of the port of Wilmington would dwindle into insignificance, and the quotations of her markets would cease to be reported.

The quarantine service, therefore, ought to be perfected in every way known to science. It ought to be a popular service, looked up to by our people with confidence, and supported by liberal appropriations, when

necessary. The present cost of this service is in the vicinity of one mill per head of the population—an amount so small that no one of that population has ever yet found out that he has paid it. The cost of one outbreak of yellow fever in Wilmington would be estimated as cheap at twenty million of dollars to the citizens of North Carolina. The cost of an idle rumor on the streets of that city, cannot, of course be estimated in money; but it is considerable and certainly amounts to a day or two of great discomfort for several thousand people.

It seems, then, that it would be wise policy to spend a little money for the perfection of this valuable service. But little is needed or asked for. At the last session of the General Assembly a bill was introduced appropriating seven thousand dellars for rebuilding the hospital and the construction of a wharf. The bill was so drawn as to provide fully and permanently for the service, and only in the event of Wilmington becoming a city of fifty thousand or more of population, was it expected that any further appropriation would be asked for. The design was, that for and in consideration of an appropriation of seven thousand dollars, and a yearly tax of about one mill per head of the population, North Carolina should have a permanent and self-supporting quarantine establishment, for the protection of her citizens from all such diseases as are brought to us in ship; that is to say, from cholera, ship fever, yellow fever, and incidentally from small pox, though it is to be supposed that an enlightened people will protect themselves from the latter disease by vaccination. This seems a sufficiently small sum with which to purchase such benefits. I suppose there might be found within the limits of North Carolina many hundreds of people who would cheerfully pay that amount out of their private purses, rather than have either of those malignant diseases invade their families. There are many thousands who would gladly pay that amount and more, if they had it, to secure immunity,-so dreadful are these diseases, and so fatal, seeking out, it almost seems, the best, the bravest and the most honored among the people.

And what do the poor think about these things? and the vast majority who cannot fly from pestilence, but must stand and face it? What should they think, but that they have wise and humane legislators, who will interpose all the protection and relief that may be put in the provisions of law for such benificent purposes made and provided?

The quarantine laws of North Carolina are ample, and no particular revision is suggested. But section 2915 of chapter 24 of The Code provides, that a hospital shall be established. It seems, therefore, obligatory upon the General Assembly to provide the means for building such a hospital; but waiving that question of law for the present, I will endeavor to show the necessity of such an establishment, if we wish to preserve a reputation for humanity, and build up prosperous cities.

An example, which may occur at any day in the year, seems best adapted as an argument to show what ought to be done.

An infected ship comes to the Quarantine anchorage. There is yellow fever on board, and the sick and well are confined together within the small compass of the ship's quarters. The sick, if not past thinking, expect to die. There is terror among those not yet stricken down. The news travels fast, and dread settles like a pall over the vicinity. What is to be done for their relief—and how shall the germs of infection be destroyed? Shall those as yet not infected be compelled to remain on board to sicken and die in their turn? Must the germs of disease lie festering and accumulating in forecastle and cabins, a constantly increasing focus of danger to the community? Shall this ship be forced to lie at her anchorage for month after month, rotting and wasting, and being consumed by expenses which will never cease until she is a total loss to been convers?

Is it necessary that this great channel of commercial activity—this natural outlet for the cotton, the naval stores, the timber—the future coaling station of the South Atlantic, and nearest point of shipment for the great West—should have to acquire so evil a reputation throughout the world that ships would not come here on the same terms offered by neighboring cities of the Southern coast?

To all these questions, it must be answered that, at present, there is no remedy. Given the infected ship, and the evils described, will happen, and perhaps worse, for it will be difficult, if not impossible, in a period of prolonged detention, to keep the disease from invading the neighboring shores.

What, then, is to be done? The answer is simple, and I call upon the State Board of Health to assist the Quarantine Board in bringing this matter before the next session of the General Assembly, to the end that a hospital may be built, and thereby the evils described be averted.

Then, when the infected ship arrives, we will take out the sick and cure them, if we can, in a comfortable hospital—if they are unfortunately beyond our skill, and die, we will bury them in the hospital cemetery like Christians, instead of digging a hole in the nearest beach, from which they will be washed out by the first storm to the terror of passers by. We will take out the well also, and place them under observation in another and isolated building. We will then proceed without delay to remove ballast and everything capable of carrying infection, and disinfect the ship.

After this is done, and the period of incubation has passed, we will take all the surviving crew and put them on board again and set them on their way rejoicing, as they must do after escaping so great perils.

And for all these services, the owners will not only gladly pay the bills, but thank the State of North Carolina for the beneficent laws that have insured such humane treatment.

This argument treats mostly upon the propriety of an appropriation

for the purpose of carrying out existing law, and building a hospital, from a sanitary point of view; but its commercial and economic aspect is equally forcible in procuring the desired legislation. The port of Wilmington, which includes all of the Cape Fear River as far as its navigable water extends, is of growing importance, and the attention of the world is being attracted to its improving bar, and the extensive and valuable harbor facilities contained within it. Wilmington is connected with a large portion of North Carolina by means of railroads already built. Merchants, wielding a vast capital, have established themselves, and are ready, and offer facilities for the transaction of all the business which comes to the wharves and warehouses they have constructed.

Not only the merchants, but their customers throughout North and South Carolina desire, and are entitled to have, the protection of the most enlightened sanitary laws. Railroad connections with the interior are constantly enlarging the limits of the trade, which aims to take in the markets of the world. A great trunk line is projected from the mouth of the Cape Fear at Southport, in a straight line and by the easiest grades to Bristol, Tenn., and thence with all the great cities of the West. This line of construction will connect by the shortest and cheapest route one-half of the State of North Carolina with the mouth of the Cape Fear River. There will be largely increased commerce with West India and South American ports. There will be more danger, but wise legislation will provide the facilities for meeting it. What is wanted is a good sanitary record for the Cape Fear. A vigilant quarantine, with proper facilities for the treatment of all cases which may arise. with quick despatch, after its requirements have been obeyed, will give a good reputation to the port, and insure the confidence of our citizens.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

W. G. CURTIS,

Quarantine Physician, Port of Wilmington.

#### HYGIENIC TEACHING IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

The school term in most of the counties is so short that in those counties where the term is longest there is little time available for the systematic study of the elements of hygienics. If there was time, there are not many books available for school children and which would be economically placed in their hands. The Board of Health, in view of these facts, have endeavored to bring the study of hygienics to the attention of the teachers, believing that if the Superintendent of Public Instruction and the Teachers' Assembly

could be brought into communication with the State Board of Health, that much that was of common interest could be inaugurated which would be of advantage to all concerned. To this end, Drs. Jones and Lewis were sent as representatives to the Teachers' Assembly, and the interview and interchange of ideas in reference to the instruction in hygienics to pupils was a satisfactory beginning.

The Board selected a work of much value for distribution among the teachers, viz: The Lomb Prize Essays on the following subjects:

- "Healthy Homes and Foods for the Working Classes";
- "The Sanitary Conditions and Necessities of School Houses and School Life";
- "Disinfection and Individual Prophylaxis Against Infectious Diseases":
- "The Preventable Causes of Disease, Injury and Death in American Manufactories and Work-shops, and the best means and Appliances for preventing and Avoiding them."

The above essays are contributions for which a prize of \$1,100 was paid by the philanthropist, Mr. Henry Lomb, of Rochester, New York, and embrace many of the elements of hygiene, as applied to the every day affairs of life. It is by such instruction as they contain that teachers can fit themselves to instruct children. As before noted, the teacher can give little or no time to text-book teaching of hygienics, and must content himself with giving oral lessons, as occasion permits, during the session. Every teacher of experience can find opportunities to inculcate lessons orally and practically on the more essential topics which appertain to healthy lives and healthy homes, and if he masters the fundamentals himself, and seeks the opportunity to teach them, he can give a more correct impression to his scholars than crude text-books interlarded with the "horrid-example" lessons.

As our efforts, so far, have been well received, the Board desires to cultivate more intimate relations with the teachers of the State, and co-operate with them in promoting a knowledge of hygienics.

OF THE ORGANIZATION OF COUNTY BOARDS OF HEALTH.

In January, 1887, there were fifty-one counties having organized Boards of Health, which, as compared with the beginning of 1886, is an increase of eleven having such organization. The functions of these boards have been of increasing importance during this period, and at the end of 1888, there are fifty-four. The organization of these county boards is regarded as of prime importance for the following reasons:

Every county has to incur an expense in medical services to the prisoners in jail and house of correction, and to the inmates of the poor-house; further, a physician must be employed for coroner's inquests, and in time of extra emergency, to take charge of cases of pestilential disease. These are unavoidable expenses, but after all they leave many items out of account, the more important of which are the sanitary care of the public institutions. The above services, too, being probably divided among several physicians, there is not anything like a continuous sanitary service practicable. The law organizes these duties under the charge of one responsible officer, the Superintendent of Health, and makes him responsible for the sanitary inspection of all the establishments which the County Commissioners have under their care. The inspection done by the grand jurors, quarterly, is only a small opportunity of correcting insanitary evils that may exist, for, as we have pointed out in our previous reports, the county functionaries have due warning of the day of inspection by the grand jury, and the appearances exhibited are not to be taken as criteria of the state of things for the rest of the year. Under the eye of the Superintendent of Health, there is far more probability of thorough inspection, and this officer, by terms of the law being a physician selected for the purpose, his knowledge of sanitation must exceed that of the average jury, and be more effectual than the employment of various physicians.

The terms of the law seem mandatory enough. (Sec. 5), "There shall be an auxiliary board of health in each county of the State," not leaving it to the opinion or preferences of county officials whether or not these boards shall be organized. This organization, where it has been effected, has elicited a growing feeling of confidence, and surely those counties having such an organization, are laying valuable foundation against the probable evils of invasion by pestilential disease. No county is so remote now that it may not, in a few years, be put in communication with the current of restless travel by the construction of railroads, and to meet these demands of an exacting civilization, organization must be begun.

Organization has another important merit; it enables counties to study their own condition as to the prevalence of diseases, death rates, causes of sickness, and also to build up records upon which to found a definite opinion of the favorable progress or decline of the sanitary condition of the people. This has now a practical bearing and will have in the future much more, as the tide of population turns towards our State seeking homes, these records must be forthcoming, figures of climate record, death rate, sickness rate, bearing official authority will be sought after by such seekers. It is in vain that we speak in glowing terms of our healthfulness and appeal to the oldest inhabitant for the salubrity of the climate, if we have nothing more definite to show strangers. We know our advantages, but they remain to be convinced.

### Penitentiary Convicts.

During the year reports had been made monthly to the

President of this Board by Dr. James W. McGee, physician to the Penitentiary, and such suggestions from time to time are made as seem to be indicated. The Board of Health has worked harmoniously with the authorities in this matter, and we trust, with advantage to the State.

### INSANE ASYLUM.

During the year a committee visited the Western Insane Asylum at the request of the Board of Directors of that Institution, and their report is on file. An invitation has been extended the Board to visit the Eastern Asylum for the Insane at Goldsboro.

For the first time in the history of the Board, the management of all the public institutions have shown their appreciation of the work of the Board of Health, and have asked their inspections and counsels based thereon.

### IMPROVEMENT IN COUNTY PUBLIC BUILDINGS

Since the beginning of the publication of the "Bulletin," (1886) the most noteworthy fact has been the improvement in the condition of jails and poor-houses. We have endeavored to get such inspections and secure such reports as would give the public proper information about the condition of prisoners and wards of the counties. This has been the burden of our endeavors from the inauguration of the Board, and, while we do not claim that all of these improvements have been brought about by the efforts of the Board, we are satisfied that what has been done has reached the ear and consciences of the public in a proper way, and that much of this fruitful result is due to our endeavor.

Executive Power Ought to be Bestowed upon the Board in Certain Cases.

The attitude of the State and County Boards of Health is advisory. In all the work done by either, these bodies must wait to be consulted by county or State authorities or give advice gratuitously. In the latter case the Boards have been obliged to depend upon the force of public opinion to reach the constituted authorities, or, if the public feeling were apathetic, see such advice meet the fate of all gratuitous advice-rejected and contemped. Some little executive power can sometimes be exerted when the Superintendent of Health works in concert with municipal authority, in enforcing health ordinances already framed by towns and cities, but this is only secondary, and the judgment of an educated Superintendent of Health can be disregarded or opposed by a municipal officer and place the Board of Health in the attitude of indifference. There are certain conditions where the Board of Health should be clothed with executive power, and these conditions should be carefully studied and incorporated in a bill to be presented to the Legislature, after having been carefully put in legal shape by a good lawyer. There are times when the authority of the Board of Health of counties should be supreme. There are times of public danger when none can be found at their posts but the few sentinels, too humble, when the security of health reigns, to be clothed with authority, but too valuable to be treated with indifference-men who are not afraid "for the pestilence that walketh in darkness, nor for the destruction that wasteth at noonday."

### VITAL STATISTICS.

A system of the registration of births, deaths and marriages, including also the numerical details of the occur-

rence of diseases dangerous to the public health, will be a necessity of the near future. It is not only expensive work, but in order to be accurate, must be conducted by those who have mastered the details of the work, as well as the underlying principles. It may be that the people are not ready yet to establish the work, and it may be as well, until the State can secure the services of trained officials. The demand of the times is steadily in this direction. The restless population of this great country is turning here and there for unoccupied lands upon which to establish homes, and they seek information upon the subject of prevalence of disease which has the authority of organized and authorized registration.

# THE BULLETIN OF THE NORTH CAROLINA BOARD OF HEALTH

Was begun in 1886, April, and has continued its monthly visitations ever since. It is distributed to State and county officials, to Superintendents of Health, and to any person asking for it. Its objects are several:

1st. To put on record the condition of health, the prevailing diseases among the people and the domesticated animals in all parts of the State, serving as a means of intercommunication by which counties can compare their conditions of sickness with each other.

2d. To give the numbers of paupers and prisoners in each county, and to show their sanitary condition and surroundings, and also their educational condition, as far as their ability to read and write.

3d. To give the numbers of deaths, and the principal causes of death, in the larger towns in the State.

4th. To give the record of temperature and the barometer from principal divisions of the State.

The Board considers this pioneer work, from which they hope to educate the people up to the necessity of accurate,

vital statistics. Accuracy cannot be expected as the county boards are organized, as the Superintendent of Health cannot require the physicians in the county to report to him—their aid being voluntary, it is generally uncertain. The only report he is able to make is such as he, by diligent inquiry, can collect, and hence must be stated only in general terms.

The time has come when all the towns in the State, numbering 500 or more, should make a record of deaths and births. The reports now sent in from 12 to 14 towns is voluntary, but mostly accurately founded upon the record obtained by compulsory certificate of death. It is to be hoped that the General Assembly will give us a law requiring such record to be kept.

The following suggestions are offered:

- 1st. No person should be allowed to be buried in any public or private burial ground without the certificate of a regular physician, or an affidavit of the reason why it is not possible to get a physician's certificate, and this affidavit must be acceptable to the Superintendent of Health of the county.
- 2d. These certificates should be sent to the County Superintendent of Health, and by him registered in a book to be furnished by the State Board of Health.
- 3d. A failure to secure a certificate of death which is satisfactory, should render the necessity of a coroner's inquest.
- 4th. All infants born should be reported within a week of their birth to the County Superintendent of Health, under a sufficient penalty for failure to report. The duty of reporting might devolve upon the nurse or physician. A record of the births should also be kept by the County Superintendent of Health and be by him reported as usual to the Secretary of the State Board.

### NOTIFICATION OF PESTILENTIAL DI EASES.

It is desirable that a law should be enacted to compel physicians and householders to report small-pox, diphtheria, scarlet fever, yellow fever, measles, cholera, or other diseases which are known to be capable of multiplying and threatening the public health.

There are some good reasons: The concealment of most of these diseases makes it possible for unwary or curious people to rush into danger; also concealment usually means confinement in close quarters which is detrimental to nearly every disease of this character

Isolation of such cases and cautionary guarding offers the best means of defense for the community.

The only way to get help from the State Board of Health and from the contingent fund held subject to the order of the Governor, is prompt notification of the facts to the Secretary of the State Board.

The concealment or misrepresentation of dangerous or pestilential diseases has been the prolific source of their spread, and it should be classed with the criminal offences against the State.

### GARBAGE DESTRUCTION BY BURNING.

One of the questions involving the cleanliness and health of our towns is the disposal of garbage. Garbage includes all the dry trash and cast-off household articles, the refuse of the kitchen, the contents of privy sinks. The old and slovenly ways which have been in vogue for years consisted in casting the dry garbage to the waste land in the suburbs of towns, or to fill up gulleys and wet places with it, thus sowing seed for future repentance. The night soil was, and is carried to a short distance from habitations and deposited in shallow trenches. Slovenliness has been the characteristic

of this disposition of the refuse of towns and disease and noisome odors have marked the places of these deposits. Various plans have been attempted by some of the more careful and prosperous towns, but none have been entirely satisfactory.

We have at last come to a period in sanitary history when the attempt is being made to destroy garbage by burning. Several years ago this Board published a pamphlet showing the necessity and possibility of garbage disposal by burning, illustrating it with one of the furnaces erected at the time. Many points of failure marked the earlier apparatus, but the development has been gradually growing forward to a stage of comparative success.

At the last meeting of the American Public Health Association, one of the prominent subjects was the cremation of garbage. The announcement of the topic brought together the inventors of the furnace, with their apparatus for exhibition, and a number of sanitarians from the chief cities and towns in the United States and Canada. Practical exemplifications of the working of the crematories, and a full description of the development of the process of cremation of garbage from the earliest inception of the process, were brought before the Association. The North Carolina Board had representatives to witness these processes in the persons of Dr. H. T. Bahnson, of Salem, and Dr. Thomas F. Wood, of Wilmington.

We will give a description of these crematories, giving only those which appear to us to have present practical value, beginning with the Engle cremator, one of which is in working order in Des Moines, and another recently erected in Milwaukee.

On our way to Milwaukee we stopped at Chicago, and through the courtesy of Dr. DeWolfe, the able health officer of that city, we saw in operation the garbage furnace erected in the outskirts. The garbage is brought from all parts of the city, and landed upon a platform above the furnace, it

being erected in the bed of a stone-quarry, and the garbage is dumped into shutes, which land it at the furnace doors. This garbage consists of everything usual to the refuse of a large city, except night soil. An examination of the process showed that it was only partially successful, as the smoke was not burnt up, and the chimney emitted bad cdors, which would bring loud complaints in a population denser than where this was located.

The desiderata, though, in regard to the destruction of garbage, are its complete reduction to harmless residue, and the avoidance of the noxious odors in the process. This the Engel furnace accomplishes.

By reference to the cut, it will be seen that the forward end is towards the left. "The upper door shown in the left hand end opens into the fireplace, and the door immediately below opens into the ash pit thereunder. The five larger openings shown on the side of the furnace midway of its length, open into the ash pt under the grate, which supports the garbage and other wet and offensive substances which are being burned. Five smaller doors above open into the garbage fireplace in order to give easy access thereto in case it becomes expedient to stir or otherwise move the garbage in the fireplace while being consumed. There are also openings in the rear fireplace, and into the pit under it. Three angular valve handles operate the three valves which appear in the figure to the left of the rear fireplace. The two valves which appear in the figure give egress into the chimney from the first fireplace and the second fireplace respectively. The three covers on the top of the furnace close the downward openings in the top furnace, through which the matter may be dumped upon the grate. (See figure 2.)

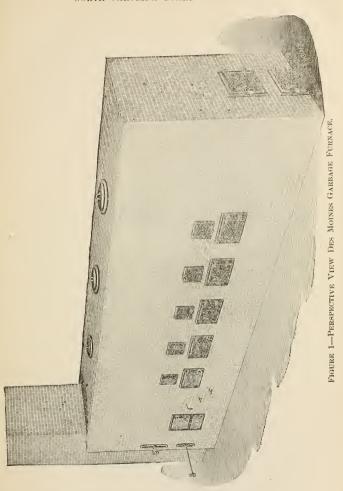
Figure 1 gives the perspective elevation of the furnace. (See figure 1.)

From what we could gather, several of the best patterns of these crematories were about to be consolidated into one improved furnace, which would probably fulfill the demands of the service required, and that it would be a fair estimate to make that a furnace large enough to consume the garbage of a town of 20 000, probably including the night soil, could be built for \$3,000. The expense of operating would depend on the cost of fuel.

Another form of the garbage crematories is a domestic one, which is adopted for the burning of the refuse of the household, including chamber lye. It is being adopted in some cities with a good deal of satisfaction, and by experimental demonstration we can say that it is worthy of extensive trial.

The mode of operation is as follows: The garbage and matter to be consumed are dumped upon the garbage grate, and a fire of coal is made in each of the two fireplaces at the respective ends of the furnace. The flames from the rear fireplace pass over the garbage, driving before them the steam and other gases arising therefrom into the flames above the forward fireplace, where the flames from the two furnaces meet and mingle. As those mingled flames pass backward toward the chimney, they intensely heat the iron floor of the garbage ash-pit, and that floor conducts heat upward toward the garbage above it, and thus aids in volatilizing the liquid constituents thereof. This operation continues until the substances on the garbage-grate are reduced to a dried condition, when the lower chimney-valve may be closed and the upper chimney-valve opened; and thereupon the flames will pass from the forward fireplace above the garbage-grate, and ignite the dried substances resting thereon, and drive the products of the resulting combustion into and through the flames above the rear fireplace.

The question of economy, so far as the best use of the refuse of cities is concerned, is not considered in the Engle crematory described above, but only that economy which puts refuse matter into a harmless condition. For small towns this question is not an urgent one, the number of dead animals to be burned not being great enough to make it worth while to separate the fat, hides, hoofs, &c., but in the larger cities it is a question which will be settled, as it has been in a crematory erected at Buffalo.



The following description of the crematory erected at Buffalo, New York, known as the Vienna Garbage Process, I take from the Sanitary News, of 25th December:

It consists of a large cylinder or boiler, called the dryer. This is inside a larger body of the same shape, leaving a large opening between the two boilers. When the inner cylinder is filled with garbage, the cap is put on the man-hole of the outer one, and steam at 250° Fahrenheit is turned on in the open space. The garbage is submitted to the cooking process for six or eight hours. The vapor generated by the heat, and acting upon the liquid portion of the stuff, is forced out and into a column still containing perforated plates and filled with cold water. The condensation is rapid, and it passes away from the discharge-pipe in the shape of cool and entirely colorless water, having the odor of water in which vegetables had been boiled. The garbage is carried by elevators from the dryers to the floor above, where it is dumped into vats, called extractors. When filled, the vats are covered with iron plates, and benzine and other chemicals are turned into it from another vat. This and the steam heat, which is again turned on, separates the oil and grease from the garbage, the former being drawn off at the bottom of the vat. It resembles crude petroleum, and has little or no odor. The garbage is then taken from the vats and conveyed to another dry-room with thin iron plate floor. By this time the substance is reduced to about the consistency of ground tan-bark, and is odorless. It then meets with a ready sale to fertilizers. The furnace has a capacity of forty-five tons of garbage per day. The inside of the crematory is not at all offensive, and there is no unpleasantness about it.

What concerns us most, can we erect these furnaces at small enough cost to make them available for small towns, where economy is a paramount object? do these furnaces really destroy without offensive exhalation? We believe the answer to both questions can be given in the affirmative.

### THE SLAUGHTERING OF ANIMALS FOR FOOD.

There is not in the State any law, either general or local, which gives to the consumer any security that the animal food offered in our markets is in proper condition, and there is no greater danger in communicating some forms of disease than by ill-conditioned meat. The description of the

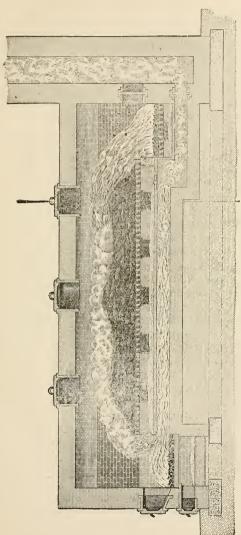


FIGURE 3-VERTICAL LONGITUDINAL SECTION DES MOINES GARBAGE FUENACE.-Position leversed from Figure 1.)

usual processes of slaughter and preparation done in some of our towns would disgust most persons with the beef and mutton they eat, and pook would have to be rejected as absolutely repulsive. Provisions against such abuses would be forced by the public, if it were the fashion of our newspaper men to "write up" the condition of our slaughter houses with the same disregard of private rights as is shown in some sections of our country. Our people do not know what the abuses are, and what are the dangers to health, but at no distant day this matter must have serious attention.

The dangers are all the more apparent, when we examine the record of the counties in which there exists hog cholera and chicken cholera, both diseases, perhaps, incorrectly named, still meaning fatal pestilential diseases. The eating of the meat of such animals, although fortunately largely purified by cooking, can but be disgusting, and most likely harmful. Poultry is marketed in crowded coops, so many of the chickens dying as to create the suspicion that they are marketed to get rid of them before they die on the producer's hands

The protection of the people against such abuses is the province of the State, and the State Board asks that the General Assembly inquire into the best means of bringing it about. Model abbattoirs can be seen now in all parts of the country, where food animals are cared for, slaughtered economically and cleanlily, to the decided advantage of the consumer as well as the dealer.

### TREASURER'S REPORT.

1888				
Jan'y	5	Balance on hand from 1887		
	7	Subscription to "Sanitarian"\$	28	00
		Express on "Bulletin"		50
	11	Postage on "Bulletin"		25
	24	Postage stamps	4	00
	26	"Little Gem" Stamp	2	00
Feb'y	1	Proceedings National Board of Health, Meyers Bros.,		
		Columbus, Ohio	3	50
	1	Express on above	1	50
		Postage on "Bulletin"		14
March	ı 5	"Sanitary Engineering and Building Record" for		
		Arthur Winslow	4	00
	13	"Climatologist" subscription, 9 copies	4	50
		"Sanitary Era" subscription, 9 copies		00
	31	"Lomb Prize Essays"	70	00
	31	Salary Secretary and Treasurer	300	00
April	2	"Health of Nations," P. Blakiston, Son & Co.	8	00
	4	Freight, 3 cases books, Concord, N. H.	3	11
		Drayage on above		20
	4	Express on "Bulletin"		50
	9	Telegram		50
	12	Express on wrappers from Philadelphia	1	10
		Express on wrappers from Philadelphia		75
	28	Geo. F. Lasher, bill for addressed wrappers	23	25
		Postage		27
May		C. W. Yates, bill stationery to Dr. John McDonald		40
	10	Express freight to Fayetteville	1	25
		Postage		25
		Expenses of Mr. J. L. Ludlow to Fayetteville meeting		70
		Expenses of Dr. Thos. F. Wood " "	27	
		Expenses of Dr. H. T. Bahnson " "		40
		Expenses of Dr. Richard H. Lewis " "		35
		The "Sanitary News," 9 subscriptions	13	50
		Postage	_	00
		Dr. J. H. Tucker, expenses to Fayetteville meeting		50
		Postage stamps		00
		Postage stamps	1	00
		Postage on Bulletin		30
June	2	Wilmington Paper Co., bill for envelopes, pens, &c		60
	5	Poetage stamps	1	00

June	7	Postage stamps\$	1	00
	8	Telegram to Wilson Board of Health		82
	8	Expenses visit of D. Thos. F. Wood to Wilson as expert	13	35
	11	Telegram Dr. Benj. Lee, Philadelphia		43
	13	Express freight on box to Teachers' Assembly, More-		
		head City	2	75
	22	Bill of S. G. Hall, printing and stationery	13	00
	27	Dr. J. W. Jones, expenses to Teachers' Assembly,		
		Morehead	21	75
	27	Dr. J. B. Lindsley, for volume 12 Transactions Am. P.		
		H. Association	5	00
	27	Postage on "Bulletin"		25
	30	Salary Secretary and Treasurer, for 2d quarter 1888	300	00
	30	Expenses J. L. Ludlow, visit of inspection Eastern		
		Insane Asylum	22	65
July	6	Express on "Bulletin"		50
	6	Expenses Dr. Rich'd H. Lewis to Teachers' Assembly,		
		Morehead	20	65
	6	Postage and wrappers on "Care of the Eyes," mailed		
		by Dr. Richard H. Lewis	50	00
	9	Postage		30
	15	Box rent, post office	1	50
	18	Expenses Dr. J. H. Tucker, visit inspection to Eastern		
		Asylum for the Insane.	19	00
	19	Stamps	1	00
	23	Bill Wilmington Paper Co., for stationery	4	50
	25	Postage	1	00
Aug.	7	Postage		25
	10	Express on "Bulletin"		50
	10	Bill of Branch & Lamb for microscope	84	00
Sept.	5-8	Telegrams to arrange for Jacksonville refugees	8	54
	8	Telegrams, as above	1	58
	17	Telegrams, as above	1	89
	17	Postage		50
		Telegrams	1	83
	30	Salary of Secretary and Treasurer, for 3d quarter 1888	300	00
	30	Express on "Bulletins"		50
Oct.	17	Expenses of Dr. W. J. Love as an expert to investigate		
		the reported case of yellow fever near Burgaw	50	00
	19	Postage on Bulletin"		25
		Express on "Bulletin"		50
		Telegrams to Hendersonville		45
Nov.		P. Blakiston, Son & Co,'s bill	4	80
	10	Express on Pennsylvania Health Reports to members		
		of Board	2	60

Nov.	10 Express on "Bulletin"		9	;	50
	30 Expenses of Dr. H. T. Bahnson as delegate to t				
	Public Health Association at Milwaukee, W			105	00
	30 Expenses of Dr. Thos. F. Wood, as above			105	00
Dec.	17 Postage on "Bulletin"				39
	17 Express on "Bulletin"				50
	18 D. Appleton & Co.'s bill			3	75
	18 Stamps			1	25
	27 Postage on "Bulletin"				28
	31 Office rent, twelve months			60	00
	31 Salary for 4th quarter, Secretary and Treasurer			300	00
	31 Fuel			3	00
	31 Harper Bros.'s bill			6	00
	31 Am. Public Health Association			5	00
			-		—
			\$3	,170	57
188					
Jan'y	5 Balance on hand from 1887\$				
	5 Warrant, 1st quarter				
-	12 Warrant, 2d quarter				
0	3 Warrant, 3d quarter	500			
Oct.	17 Warrant, 4th quarter	500	00		
		2,217			
	*	,170	57		
	Balance on hand\$	46	67		

MORTUARY REPORT FROM NINE TOWNS FOR 1887.

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MORTUARY REPORT FROM NINE TOWNS FOR 1887.—(CONTINUED.)

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		11
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MORTUARY REPORT FROM NINE TOWNS FOR 1887.—(CONTINUED.)

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SEPTEMBER.	WHITE.	Tamporary annual death— rate per LOBB,				20	13.2		
	W.III	No. of deaths.	Ξ.	- 5	· .	3	: 40		
			Wilmington.	Ashevil c	Fayetteville	Kaleigh	New Berne	'a' boro	Minchester

# MORTUARY REPORT FROM FIFTEEN TOWNS FOR 1888.

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MORTUARY REPORT FROM FIFTEEN TOWNS FOR 1888.—(CONTINUED.)

	эля	яппия] death-r   рег 1,000.	222223842422222 222238424222222222222222
ST.		rate per 1,000.	22.23.3 6.0 2.22.33 5.0 8.0 0.3 5.0 8.0 5.0 8.0 0.3 5.0 8.0 5.0 5.0 5.0 5.0 5.0 5.0 5.0 5.0 5.0 5
AUGUST	cor,n	Zo, of deaths,	824: 1: 120 G - 22 - 12 - 12 - 12 - 12 - 12 - 12 -
· V	WHITE.	Temporary rate per 1,000.	8.6 8.6 8.6 8.6 8.6 8.6 8.6 1.7 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0
	WH	No. of deaths.	0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
	9116	Total temporar   annual death-ra   per 1,000,	22. 29. 29. 29. 29. 29. 29. 29. 29. 29.
۲.	cor'b.	Temporary annual death- rate per 1,000.	77.7 25.0 25.0 25.0 25.0 25.0 25.0 25.0 25.0
MULY	00	No. of deaths.	1 :02.00 :01422 :21 :25
,	WHITE.	Temporary annual death- rate per 1,000.	11.8 20.2 20.2 12.0 12.0 12.0 12.0 12.0
	WI	No. of deaths.	x 1-01x 1x-01x 1- 1x2
	alte y	Total temporar, annual death-ra p-r 1,000,	21.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0 1.0
E.	cor, b.	Temporary annual death- rate per 1,000.	22.2 22.2 25.5 25.5 25.5 25.5 25.5 25.5
TUNE	5	No. of deaths.	∞==∞c: :25-5:::=%
	WHITE.	Temporary annual death- rate per 1,000,	2011 1110 1110 1110 1110 1110 1110 1110
	I M	No. of deaths.	5rrau !ucur- : :u8
	911	Total temporary snnusi death-ra per 1,000,	212 122 160 160 160 160 160 160 160 160 160 160
Υ.	cor'b.	Temporary annual death- rate per 1,000,	2 X 2 2 X 2 X 2 X 2 X 2 X 2 X 2 X 2 X 2
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	WHITE.	Temporary annual death- rate per 1,000,	8.65 8.65 8.65 8.65 19.11 19.11 19.00 10.00 10.0
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			Asheville Clariotie Durhan Durhan Goldstor Goldstor Goldstor Henderson New Berne Oxford Erriches Salisbur Washington Winhington

# MORTUARY REPORT FROM FIFFEEN TOWNS FOR 1888.—(CONTINUED.)

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sų		Total number o during th.s year	至 3 2 3 2 3 2 3 2 3 2 3 2 3 2 3 2 3 2 3
	911	Total temporary annual death-ra per 1,000,	22.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2
DECEMBER	cor, p.	Temporary annual death annual death. Tate per 1,000,	27.7.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.
CEN		rate per 1,000.	
10	WILLTE.	Temporary	20
		per 1,000.	
zi.	91	rate per 1,000, Total temporary annual death ra	
MBE	cor'd,	Temporary -diash death-	200 200 200 200 200 200 200 200 200 200
NOVEMBER		annual death. Take per 1,100. Xo. of deaths.	1.22.4.4.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2.2
4	WHITE.	Yemporary	
	931	nnnual death-ra per 1,000,	688042278272 688042278272 68804647277
e2		annual death- rate per 1 000, Total temporary	0.252 0.252 0.252 0.252 0.253
OCTOBER	cor, b	No. of deaths.	v=seesacts3 : :-e3
0 C	WHIFE.	Temporary annual death- rate per Lunu,	8204 82839 R. 6221 1.00000 000
	WH	No. of deaths	
ئہ		Total temporary annual death-ra per 1,040,	888 5 4 3 1 3 2 4 9 8 5 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4
SEPTEMBER	cor'b.	lemporary annual death- rate per 1,000,	25.0 25.0 25.0 10.2 10.2 10.2 15.0 15.0 15.0 15.0 15.0
LEN	00	No. of deaths.	x 2 c + 0 c + 5 0 5 - 1 1 0 3
SEI	WHIFE.	Temporary annual death- rate per 1,000,	2 2 2 2 4 5 2 2 3 4 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5
	*	No. of deaths.	12011-14-1511 - 1 : E
			Asheville.  (inarbude.  (inarbude.)  (inarbude.)  (inarbude.)  (inarbude.)  (inarbude.)  (inarbude.)  (inarbude.)
			Asheville Charlotte Durham Fayetteville Goldshoro Greenshoro Greenshoro Henderson New Berne Oxiond Tallotter Tallotter Sallsbury Statteville Washington

# MORTUARY REPORT FOR JANUARY, 1887. FROM FOUR TOWNS.

	1 1			-						
Causes of Death.		Wilm'g- ton.		Char- lotte.		ville.	Fayette ville.		Totals	
	w.	C.	W.		w.	C.	w.	C.	w.	C.
Accident		1	1	1		-			1	2
Apoplexy		1		1			-			1
Brain, congestion of	}	1	-			1				1
Brain, softness of						3				1
Bronchitis, acute	3	4		9	4		1	1	8	7
Consumption		1		~	7		1	1		i
Cholera Infantum			1						1	1
Debility		3	1						Ĺ.	2
Dropsy		4								4
Dysentery		1	1						1	1
Fever, congestive		2								2
Gastro-enteritis					1				1	
Heart, disease of	1	3					1		2	3
Lungs, congestion of	1								1	
Meningitis, spinal	-	1		1						2 2
Measles					2	2			2	2
Old age		٠.					1		1	
Paralysis	4	1		1					1	z
Pycemia		2			}				9	
Still-born		~		1					ءَ	2
Spasm Teething		1		1						1
Tetanus traumatis		1			. 1					1
Womb, rupture of		1								1
Pneumonia		3	2	1	1	2	2	1	8	7
	11		5	8	8	8	 5	2	 29	47
	11	_						-3)	-	
Total by towns	4	.0	1	.3	1	6	7	Ĭ	7	6

Towns.	Po	pulatio	n.	Temporary annudeath rate per 1,000.					
	w.	C.	Total.	w.	С.	Total.			
Wilmington	8,000 6,000	13,000 5,000	21,000 11,000		26.8 19.2	22.9 14.2			
Asheville	4,500		6,000	21.3	64.0 13.3	32.0 19.5			

### MORTUARY REPORT FOR FEBRUARY, 1887. FROM FOUR TOWNS.

Causes of Death,		mingt'n	Char- lotte.		Ashe-	ville.	Fayette-		Totals	
	w.	C.	w.	.C.	w.	C.	W.	С.	W.	C.
Brain, congestion of Bronchitis, capillary Consumption Cholera infantum Convulsions Debility Dropsy Dysentery Fever, typhoid. Heart-disease Inanition Jaundice, obstructive Liver cimhosis Laryngismus stridulus Lungs, congestion of Measles Meningitis, cerebro-spinal Old age Pneumonia Pneumonia, typhoid Rheumatism Still-born Spasm	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	1 1 1 1 1 2 1 1 1 1 3		1 1 2 2 1 1 1 1 2 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	3 1 1  4  1	1 5	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	2	1 2 1 2 1 2 1 2 1 2 1 3 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	1 2 8 1 1 2 1 1 1 2 1 1 1 2 1 1 1 2 3 1 1 3 1 1 1 1
Tetanus Tabes Mesenterieus Whooping-cough Accident						2				1 2 1
	4	19	8	12		11	3	2	26	
Total by towns	2	23	2	20		3		5	7	0

Towns.	Po	pulatio			orary a h rate ).	
	w.	C.	Total.	w.	С.	Total.
Wilmington	8,000	12,000	20,000	6.0	19.0	13.8
Charlotte	6,000	5,000	11,000	16.0	28.8	21.7
Asheville	4,500	1,500	6,000	29.3	88.0	44.0
Fayetteville	2,500	1,800	4,300	14.4	13.3	13.9

### MORTUARY REPORT FOR MARCH, 1887. EROM SIX TOWNS.

Causes of Death.	Wil-	mingt'n	Poloich	- Raleigh.		Charlotte.		Berne,	Ashe-	ville.	Fayette-	ville.	Totals	by Races
	W.	C.	w.	C.	w.	C.	w.	C.	w.	C.	w.	C.	w.	C.
Pulmonary dlseases	2	6	2	4	4	9	1	3	7	6	1		17	28
Heart-disease					-5-	2								2
Brain disease.					1			1					1	1
Scarlet fever	1												1	
Typhoid fever Measles	1				1	1			1	2			1	3
Paralysis	2				T	1			1	1	1		1	1
Old age	~	ī							1	1	1		4	1
Still-born	1	4	1	3								3	2	10
Accident		1										Ĭ	_~	1
Other causes	2	11	3	2	1	1	1	4				2	7	21
				_										
	10	25	6	9	7	13	2	8	8	9	2	5	26	68
Totals by towns	è	35	1	5	2	0	1	0	1	7		7	1	04

Towns.	Po	pulatio	on.	Temporary annua death rate per 1,000.					
	w.	C.	Total.	w.	C.	Total.			
Wilmington Raleigh Charlotte	8,000 8,000 6,000	7,000	20,000 $15,000$ $11,000$	9.0	25.0 15.4 31.2	21.0 12.0 21.8			
New Berne* Asheville Fayetteville	4,500	1,500		21.3	72.0	34.0 19.5			

<sup>\*</sup>Population not given.

## MORTUARY REPORT FOR APRIL, 1887. FROM FIVE TOWNS.

Causes of Deaths.	New	Berne.	Wil-	ton.	Ashe-	ville.	Fayette-	ville.	Cha-	lotte.	Doloigh	maieigii.	Totals	by Races
	w.	С.	w.	С.	w.	C.	W.	C.	w.	C.	w.	C.	w.	C.
Typhoid fever			1		1								2	
Scarlet fever			1	1					3				1 2	1
Diphtheria			111	1										1
Whooping-cough						1								1
Measles				9-	0				4	2			111	2
Consumption			1	3 5	6	1		1	4	1			11 2	10
Brain diseases									1	3			1	8
Heart diseases			1	5				1					1	6
Neurotic diseases Diarrhœal diseases				1				1	1				1	1 2
All other diseases	2	3	6	9	1	1	1	1	2	1			11	14
Accident								1						1
Suicide														
Still-born Under five years			2	4 10	1 3			2					3	7 20
Older live years			-1	10									'	20
	2	4	13	30	10	3	1	3	11	12			37	57
Totals by towns -		6	4	3	1	3		1	2	3			9	4

Reporter.	Towns.	Po	pulati		Tem annu rate	îal d	eath
		w.	C.	Total.	W.	C.	Tot.
Dr. R. D. Hancock Dr. F. W. Porter Dr. W. L. Hilliard Dr. J. A. Hodges Dr. James McKee	Wilmington*. Asheville Fayetteville Charlotte	9,900		23,400	$15.8 \\ 21.3 \\ 4.8$	26.6 19.1 40.0	22.1 $20.8$ $19.5$

<sup>\*</sup>Estimate based on basis of  $4\frac{1}{2}$  of population to each registered voter. †No report.

### MORTUARY REPORT FOR MAY, 1887. FROM SIX TOWNS,

Causes of Death.	Char-	lotte.	Ashe-	ville.	Dur-	ham.	Fayette-	ville.	Wil-	mingt'n	New	Berne.	Ral-	eigh.	Totals	by Races
	w.	C.	w.	C.	w.	С.	w.	C.	w.	С.	w.	C.	w.	C.	w.	C.
Typhoid fever Scarlet fever Malarial fever Diphtheria Whooping-cough Measles Pneumonia Consumption Brain diseases Heart diseases Heart diseases Sowel diseases Adl other diseases Accident Suicide Still-born Under five years		6 1 2 6	1 1 2 7	1 1 2 2 3 6	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	1 2 4	1 1 2	1 1 2 2 4	3 2 7	1 1 5 3 6 7	2 1 3	1 8 4 1 1 10 19			1 2 2 3 3 3 4 13 9 2 10	1 10 2 16 1 1 1 1 16 9 1 1 17 79
Totals by towns		31		13	8	3	(	3		30	_	24			1:	20

Reporter.	Towns	Po	pulatio			ual d	eath
		w.	С.	Total.	W.	C.	Tot.
J. Scarr Dr. N. L. Hilliard	Asheville	6,000 4,611	2,607	11,000 7,248	18.1	27.6	21.5
Dr. N. M. Johnson Dr. J. A. Hodges Dr. F. W. Potter	Fayetteville	3,500 2,500 9,900	1,800	6,000 $4,300$ $23,400$	9.6	26.1	16.8
Dr. James McKee S. Fulcher, City Clerk	Raleigh*						

<sup>\*</sup>No report received.

### MORTUARY REPORT FOR JUNE, 1887. FROM FIVE TOWNS.

Causes of Death.	Ashe-	ville.	Char-	lotte.	Dur-	ham.	Favette-	ville.	Wilm'g-	tou.	New	Berne.	Ral-	eigh.	Totals	by Races
	w.	C.	w.	C.	w.	C.	w.	C.	W.	C.	w.	C.	W.	C.	W.	С
Typhoid fever Scarlet fever Malarial fever		1			1			7	ĩ	2					1	3
Diphtheria Whooping-cough Measles	1	1								1					1	2
Pneumonia Consumption Brain diseases	3			3		1	1		1						4 3	7
	10	 9		3	3	···· 1		4	4	2					3 1 29	5 30
All other diseases Accident Suicide	4		2				1		3	5	!				10	5
Still-born			1			1			2	4				_	3	5
Under five years,	$\frac{1}{20}$		18	19	4		3		12	21			T	-	$\frac{21}{46}$	
Totals by towns.	3	1	3	7	7	7	7	_	33	3					10	

REPORTER.	Towns.	Ро	pulatio	on,	Temporary annual deat rate per 1,00					
		W.	C.	Total.	W.	C.	Tot.			
	Charlotte Durham* Fayetteville	4,641 6,000 3,000 2,500 9,900	5,000 2,500 1,800	7,248 11,000 5,500 4,300 23,400	$38.0 \\ 16.0 \\ 14.4$	45.6 $14.4$ $30.0$	41.5 $15.3$ $19.5$			

<sup>\*</sup>Dr. Johnson doubts correctness of this report.

<sup>\*\*</sup>No report received.

# MORTUARY REPORT FOR JULY, 1887. FROM SIX TOWNS,

Causes of Death.	Ashe-	ville.	Char-	ville.	Durham		Fayette-	ville	Wil-	mingt'n	New	Berne.	Roloich	marcigii.	Totals	by Races
	w.	C.	w.	С.	w.	C.	w.	С.	w.	C.	w.	C.	w.	C.	w.	C.
Typhoid fever. Scarlet fever. Malarial fever. Diphtheria Who'p'g-cough	2	1	1	2	1			1	2	1			1	1	5 2	5 3
Measles Pneumonia Consumption Brain diseases Heart diseases				1 2 1	ī.	1	 1		1 2 1	2 4			3 3	1 1 3	6 8 4	2 5 9 2
Neurotic dis'es Bowel diseases All other dis'es Accident Suicide Still-born	3 2	3	2 5	1 2 1	1	2		2	4 4	10 1 1			2 4 1	2 6	12 15 1 	10 22 1 1 1 4
Under5 years.		4		1	3	3	1		16	1 25			17	1 18	55	$\frac{0}{174}$
Totals by towns		_	1	8	-		4			11			3		_	29

Reporter.	Towns.	Po	pulati	on.	annı		
		w.	С.	Total.	w.	С.	Tot.
Dr. W. L. Hilliard J. Scarr Dr. N. M. Johnson Dr. J. A. Hodges Dr. F. W. Potter Dr. Jas. McKee	Charlotte Durham Fayetteville Wilmington		$5,000 \\ 2,500$		$16.0 \\ 10.7 \\ 4.8 \\ 18.2$	$24.0 \\ 14.4 \\ 20.0 \\ 23.1$	19.6 12.0 11.2 21.0

### MORTUARY REPORT FOR AUGUST, 1887. FROM SIX TOWNS.

Causes of Death.	Ashe-	ville.	Char-	lotte.	Durham		Fayette-	ville.	Wilm'g-	ton.	New	Berne.	Raleich	C	Totals	by Races
	W.	C.	w.	С.	w.	С.	w.	С.	w.	C.	w.	C.	w.	C.	w.	C.
Typhoid fever. Scarlet fever Malarial fever. Diptheria Whoop'g-cough Measles				1	1		4	1 2	2 2	i			2 1 4	1 2 2	5 2 3 9	2 1 3 5
Consumption Brain diseases Heart diseases Neurotic dis'es Bowel diseases All other dis'es Accident Suicide Still-born	2 1	2	1 1 2 2	3 2 2 4 1	1 2	2 4	1	1 1	2	3 2 9 1			1 2 1 2	1 1 2 3	6 6 7 2	4 2 1 5 11 18 2
Under 5 years	:	3			-	-	-	-			-	-	1	0	1	3
Totals by towns	6	2		14	6	6	6	5		27			13	14		61

Reporter.	Towns.	Pe	pulati	on.	annı		eary leath 1,000
		w.	C.	Total.	w.	C.	Tot.
Dr. W. L. Hilliard J. Scarr Dr. N. M. Johnson	Charlotte	4,641 6,000 4,500	5,000	7,248 11,000 7,000	10.0	33.6	20.7
Dr. J. A. Hodges Dr. F. W. Potter Dr. Jas. McKee	Fayetteville Wilmington	$\frac{2,500}{9,900}$	1,800 $13,500$	4,300 23,400 15,000	$\frac{28.8}{21.0}$	$33.3 \\ 24.0$	30.7 18.5

### MORTUARY REPORT FOR SEPTEMBER, 1887. FROM SIX TOWNS.

Causes of Death.	Ashe-	ville.	Char-	lotte	Durham		Fayette-	ville,	Wilm'g-	ton.	New	Berne.	Balaich		Totals	by Races
	w.	C.	w.	C.	w.	C.	w.	C.	w.	C.	w.	C.	w.	C.	w.	C.
Typhoid fever. Scarlet fever. Malarial fever. Diphtheria Who'ing-cough Measles Pneumonia Consumption Brain diseases Heart diseases Heart diseases Neurotic dis'es Bowel diseases All other dis'es Accident Suicide Still-born	1 2 1 9	5	2 1	3	1 1 1 5	1 1 1 4	2 5	2 11	2 1 2 3 5	3 1 5 6 2 23 2			9 1 1 1 3 1	3 1 2 1 6 8	3 12 3 3 2 5 10 6	5 12 2 8 7 4 10 14 23 3
Totals by towns Under 5 years	1-		1	3	-6	-	1:	8		5			3	6	_	45 7

Reporter.	Towns.	Po	pulatio	011.	ann	npor ual d per	
		W.	С.	Total.	w.	C.	Tot.
Dr. W. L. Hilliard	Asheville	4,641	2,607	7,248	28.1	22.8	22.9
Dr. J. Scarr		6.000		11,000			
Dr. N. M. Johnson	Durham	4.500	2,500	7,000	13.2	19.2	14.4
Dr. J. A. Hodges	Favetteville	2,500	1,000	4,300	2.4	8.6	5.0
Dr. F. W. Potter	Wilmington	9,900	13,500	23,400	15.6	36.1	27.6
	New Berne*						
Dr. Jas. McKee	Raleigh	8,000	7,000	15,000	51.6	37.2	28.8

<sup>\*</sup> No report received.

### MORTUARY REPORT FOR OCTOBER, 1887. FROM SIX TOWNS.

Causes of Death.	Ashe-	ville.	Char-	lotte.	Dur-	ham.	Fayette-	ville.	Wil-	mingt'n	New	Berne.	Ralaich		Totals	by Races
	w.	C.	W.	C.	w.	C.	w.	C.	w.	C.	w.	C.	w.	C.	w.	C.
Typhoid fever Scarlet fever Malarial fever Diptheria Whoop'g-cough Measles Pneumonia Consumption Brain diseases Heart diseases Neurotic disea's Bowel diseases All other dis'es Accident Suicide Still-born	1		1 2 1	3	1 2 2 - 7	1 3	2 1 1 1	2 2 2	1 2 4 4 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10	1 3 5 1 2 1 1 6 1			3 2 1 2 7 1 2	1 2 2 1 3 5 1 1 16	3 1 3 5 5 4 4 4 1 1 1 3 3 14 5	3 1 6 3 1 2 10 1 3 1 8 28 1
	-	-	4	10		4		0	10	20			10	10	49	11
Totals by towns	1	5	5	0	1	1		9	3	3			3	4	12	0
Under 5 years.			,- <u>-</u> -			5	;	3								7

Reporter.	Towns.	Po	pulatio	on,	Tempo deat 1,000	h rate	
		w.	С.	Total.	w.	С.	Total.
Dr. W. L. Hilliard Dr. J. Scarr Dr. N. M. Johnson Dr. J. A. Hodges	Charlotte Durham Fayetteville	4,641 6,000 4,500 2,500	$2,500 \\ 1,800$		17.2 6.6 15.5 16.0	26.8 32.0 16.0 27.7	20.7 18.1 13.7 20.9
Dr. F. N. Potter Dr. James McKee	New Berne*.	9,900		23,400 15,000	11.1 22.5	17.3 22.8	14.1

<sup>\*</sup>No report received.

### MORTUARY REPORT FOR NOVEMBER, 1887.

### FROM EIGHT TOWNS,

Causes of Death	Ashe-	ville.	Char-	lotte.	Fayette-	ville.	Dar-	ham.	Raleigh.	0	Tarbero		Will-	mingtn	New	Berne.	Totals	by Races
	W	С	w	С	W	С	W	С	W	С	W	С	w	C	W	С	W	С
27 1		,	1	1					1	1			2				4	2
Malarial fever Diphtheria						1			3	1		-	1	5		2	3	7 2
Whooping-cough Measles Pneumonia	2			-	1	1	1			1	1						11	6
Consumption Brain diseases	ĩ		2	2			2	1	2 2	1 1 4		2	2	2 6 2 3		3		13
Heart diseases Neurotic diseases.			1	1	1			2	1	1	-		1 1	3 3			3	5
Bowel diseases All other diseases Accident	3	1	1	1 1		1	3		6	4		1	1	5	3	4	14	17
Suicide Still-born	2								1				1	i .		1	4	1
	8	2	6	8	2	3	6	4	16	14	1	3	10	27	3	10	47	72
Totals by towns	1	0	1	4		5	1	0	3	0		4	3	7	1	3	11	9
Under 5 years		4	١			2		-			l				(	4	1	.0

Reporter.	Towns.	Po	pulatio	on.	Tempo deat 1,000	h rate	
		W.	C.	Total.	w.	C.	Total.
Dr. W. L. Hilliard Dr. J. Scarr Dr. J. A. Hodges	Asheville Charlotte Fayetteville	4,641 $6,000$ $2,500$	2,607 $5,000$ $1,800$	7,248 11,000 4,300	12.0	9.20 19.2 20.0	16.5 15.3 13.9
Dr. N. M. Johnson Dr. James McKee Dr. J. M. Baker	Durham Raleigh Tarboro	4,500 8,000 1,300	2,500 7,000 1,200	$7,000 \\ 15,000 \\ 2,500$	$16.0 \\ 24.0 \\ 9.2$	19.2 24.0 30.0	17.1 24.20 19.2
Dr. F. H. Potter S. Fulcher, City Cl'k		$\begin{vmatrix} 9,900 \\ 2,000 \end{vmatrix}$		$\begin{bmatrix} 23,400 \\ 7,000 \end{bmatrix}$		24.0 24.0	18.9 18.5

# MORTUARY REPORT FOR DECEMBER, 1886. FROM NINE TOWNS.

Causes of Death.	Ashe-	ville.	Char-	lotte.	Dur-	ham.	Fayette-	ville.	Baloich	0	Wil-	mingt'n	New	Berne.	Wash-	ington.	Tar-	boro.	Totals	by Kaces
	W	С	W	C	W	С	W	С	w	С	W	С	W	С	W	C	W	С	w	С
Typh'd fev'r Scarlet fev'r Malar'l fev'r Diphtheria Wh'p'g-c'gh Measles		1		1								1 2	1 1	1					1 1 1	2 3 1
Pneumonia Consumpt'n Brain dis'es Heart dis'es Neurotic dis	2 1 1	2	2	2	1	1 1	1	1	2 1	2 1 1	2 3		1	1 3	1	1			7 5 5 1 2	6 9 2 1 1
Bowel dis'es All oth'r dis. Accident Suicide Still-born	7	2	2	2 2	1	1	1	1 1	1	8	5	1 16 1 3	1	2			1	1	2 17 2	3 31 2 1 9
Totals by towns	13	6	12	4	2	4	3	4	5	14	10 34	24	5	9	3	2	1 2	-	40	_
Under 5 y'rs	7		8		3				8		1:	1	1		1				38	)

REPORTER.	Towns.	Po	pulatio	on.	annı	pora nal d per	
		w.	C.	Total.	W.	C.	Tot.
Dr. W. L. Hilliard	Asheville	4,641	2,607	7,248	33.6	27.6	31.4
Dr. J. Scarr		6,000		11,000			
Dr. N. M. Johnson	Durham	4,500		7,500			
Dr. J. A. Hodges	Fayetteville	2,500	1,800	4,300	14.4	26.6	19.5
Dr. Jas. McKee	Raleigh	8,000	7,000	15,000	7.5	24.0	15.1
Dr. F. W. Potter	Wilmington -	9,000	14,000	23,300	13.3	20.6	17.7
S. Fulcher, City Clerk.	Newbern	2,000	3,000	5,000	30.0	36.0	33.6
Dr. S. T. Nicholson	Washington	2,400	1,600	4,000	5.0	15.0	9.0
Dr. J. M. Baker		1,300	1,200	2,500	9.3	10.0	9.6

# MORTUARY REPORT FOR JANUARY, 1888. FROM TEN TOWNS,

Causes of Death.	Ashe- ville.	Char- lotte.	Dur- ham.	Fayette-	Golds- boro.	New Berne.	Ral- eigh.	Tarboro	Wash'g- ton.	Wilm'g- ton.	Totals by Races
Accident	w C 1 2 5 22 6 6	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	w c 2 2 1 1 2 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 7 5	-  -		W   C   3   1   2   2   3   1   2   1   1   2   1   1   1   1   1	1 4		w c 1 3 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	W C 2 6 24	26 6 3 1 1 9 20 1 6 2 2 3 4 5 9
Totals by towns.	41	12	12	10	3	12	26	1	9	30	149
Under five years.	7	8	5	1	1	3			3		28

REPORTERS.	Towns.	Po	pulatio		Tempo deat 1.000	h rate	
		w.	C.	Total.	W.	C.	Total.
Dr. H. B. Weaver	Asheville .	5,000	3,000	8,000	67.3	52.0	61.5
Dr. J. Scarr	Charlotte	6,000	5,000	11,000	6.0	26.4	15.3
Dr. N. M. Johnson,	Durham	4,000	3,500	7,500	21.0	17.1	19.2
Dr. J. A. Hodges .	Favetteville	4,500	2,500	7,000	10.7	28.0	17.1
, Mayor	Goldsboro	2,800	2,200	5,000	4.3	10.9	7.2
S. Fulcher, CityCl'k	New Berne	2,000	3,000	5,000	12.0	40.0	28.8
Dr. James McKee .	Raleigh	8,000	7,000	15,000	16.5	25.7	20.8
Dr. J. M. Baker	Tarboro	1,500	1,000	2,500		12.0	4.8
Dr. S. T. Nicholson	Washington	2,400	1,600	4.000	25.0	30.0	27.0
Dr. F. W. Potter.	Wilmington	9,000	14,000	23,000	8.0	21.4	16.2

# MORTUARY REPORT FOR FEBRUARY, 1888. FROM TEN TOWNS.

Causes of Death.	Ashe-	ville.	Char-	lotte.	Dur-	ham.	Fayette-	ville.	Golds-	poro.	New	Berne.	Roloim		Tarboro	O TOTAL	Wash-	ıngton.	Wil-	mingt'n	Totals	byRaces
	w	С	w	С	w	C	w	С	w	C	w	С	w	С	w	C	w	С	w	С	w	С
Typhd. fev'r Scarlet fever		Ī	1	2				-		- }									1		2	2
Malarial f'vr Diptheria					1							2									1	2
Wh'p'g-c'gh Measles Pneumonia	1					2				-		3	3	9					2		3	16
Consumpt'n Brain dis'es	6	1	1	3	2		 1	1	1	1		3	1	3 2		1	1	1 2 1	2	2	7 8	16 4
Heart dis'es Neurotic d's				1	1		1	1			1								1	2 5	3	4 5
Bowel dis'es All other d's Accident	1	6	1	5 2	1	2	 - <sub>1</sub> -			3	1	3	3	2	1		3		8	7	19 2	$\frac{1}{28}$
Suicide Still-born				3		1							- 1						1	3	2	7
	8	7	4	16	6	5	3	3	1	4	2	11	10	17	1	1	4	$\frac{-}{4}$	16	 20	54	87
Tot'ls by t'ns	1	5	2	0	1	1		6		5	1	3	2	7		2		3	3	6	14	1
Under 5 y'rs		2		9		2				3		5	1	2		1		1	1	3	4	8

Reporter.	Towns.	Po	pulatio	on.		h-rate	nnual per
		w.	C.	Total.	w.	С.	Total.
Dr. H. B. Weaver Dr. J. Scarr Dr. N. M. Johnson Dr. J. A. Hodges Mayor S. Fulcher, Citr Cl'k Dr. James McKee Dr. J. M. Baker Dr. S. T. Nicholson Dr. F. W. Potter M. Potter Dr. F. W. Potter M. Scarr Dr. F. W. Potter M. Potter M. Scarr Dr. F. W. Potter M. Potter M. Potter M. W. Potter M. Potter M. Potter	Charlotte Durham Fayetteville Goldsboro New Berne Raleigh Tarboro Washington	5,000 6,000 4,000 4,500 2,800 2,000 8,000 1,300 2,400 9,000	3,500 2,500 2,200 3,000 7,000 1,200 1,600	11,000 7,500 7,000 5,000 5,000 15,000 2,500	20.0	28.0 38.4 17.1 14.4 21.8 44.0 29.1 10.0 30.0 17.1	22.5 21.8 17.6 10.3 12.0 31.2 21.6 9.6 24.0 18.8

# $\begin{array}{c} \text{MORTUARY REPORT FOR MARCH, 1888.} \\ \text{FROM TEN TOWNS.} \end{array}$

Causes of Death.	Asheville,	Charlotte.	Durham.	Fayetteville.	Goldsboro,	New Berne.	Raleigh.	Tarboro.	Washington.	Wilmington	Henderson.	Salisbory.	Tetals by Races,
	W. C	W C	WE	WC	W	w c	W C	w c	w c	W C	w c	WC	WC
Typhoid fever													
Scarl-t fever													
Malarial fever				2									2
Diphtheria													
Whooping-cough	*** ***												
Measles										1 1			1 1
Pneumonia			8 4	1			1 4			2 3			8 13
Consumption	4		1 1	1						2 4	1	6	9 15
Brain diseases	7 1									!			9 3
Heart diseases				J						1 1			1 3
Neurotic diseases										1 2			8 2
All other diseases				1				1					10 33
												4	19 22
Cr. 1 1 1													
Still-born											**		3
Sun-born	1										2		9
	18 11		5 5	2 5	1		7 11	2	2 2	13 2	3	1 7	52 64
	10 11		0 0	2 0	1		7 1 1	21	-1 -	1012	0	3, 4	02:04
Totals by towns	29		10	7	1		18	2	4	34	3	11	116
Under five years	8		2	2	11		4	2		5			23

REPORTERS.	Towns.	Pop	ulati	on.	nua	orary l deat e per l	h-
		w.	C.	Total	W.	C.	Total
Dr. H. B. Weaver Dr. J. Scarr		5,000	3,000	8,600		44.0	43.5
Dr. N. M. Johnson Dr. J. A. Hodges	Dorham	4,500	3,000 2,500	7,500 7,000		12.0 25.0	13.7 12.0
J. E. Peterson, Mayor S. Fulcher, City Clerk	Goldsbero	2,800	2,200	5,00		5,5	2.4
Dr. J. M. Baker	Raleigh	8,000	7,000	15,000	10.5	18.8	14.4
Dr. S. T. Nicholson	Washington	1,300 2,400	1,600	4,000		15.0	9.6 12.0
Dr. F. W. Potter Dr. F. R. Harris	Henderson	1,785	1.715				17.7 10.3
Dr. J. J. Summerell	Salisbury			5,000			26.4

# MORTUARY REPORT FOR APRIL, 1888. FROM TWELVE TOWNS.

Causes of Death.	Ashavilla		Durham		Faretteville		Goldshoro		Hem.loreon	, increased,	New Barne	Tien come.	Oxford		Baleich		Salishurv		Tarboro		Wilmington		Wachington	" asmington.	Totals by	Races.
	w	C.	W	C.	W	C	W		W	c.	w	C.	W	C	w	c.	w	c.	w	c.	w	C.	w	C.	w	c.
Typhoid lever Searlet fever Malarial fever Diphtheria Whooping e uigh Malarial fever Cons imption Brain diseases Heart diseases Neurotic diseases Sowed diseases All other diseases Suicide Still born	:: 2 *2 *2 :: 5	3 1	 2 2 2 	  1 1  3	1 1 1 	1	2					- 4 	#1	1	i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i	3 3	5		‡2		1 1 6 2 111	3 3 13 13 	0	ī	 1 6 5 8 4 2 2 2 17 2	1 4 2 € 11 1 € 1 4 29 4 88
Totals by towns,	10	)	8		4		2		7		1:	3	2		18	9	7		3	-	784		I	-	118	
Uunder five years			1					-	1		5				-4	-	2		1	- -	15			-	29	-

REPORTERS,	Towns.	Po	pulati	on.	anr	mpora nual d e per 1	eath-
X.		W.	C.	Total	W	C.	Total
Dr. H. B. Weaver Dr. N. M. Johnson Dr. J. A. H. dges. J. E. Peterson, Mayor Dr. F. R. Harris. S. Fulcher, City Clerk,	Asheville Ourham Fayetteville Goldsboro Henderson New Perne	4,500 2,800 1,785	3,500 2,500 2,200	8,000 7,500 7,000 5,000 8,500 6,000	25 0 5.3 8.6 20,2	16 0 10.0 9.6 28.0 44.6	13.5 12.8 6:9 4.8 24.0 26.0
Dr. J. B. William Dr. James McKee Dr. J. J Summerell Dr. J. M. Baker Dr. F. W. Potter	Oxford Raleigh Salisbury Tarboro, Wilmington Washington	1,490 8,000 1,50 9,000	1,600 7,000 1,200 14,000	3,000 15,000 5,000 2,500 23,000	8 6 7.5 18.5 13.3	7.5 24 0 10.0 19.7 7.5	8.0 15.2 16.8 14.4 17.2 3.0

<sup>\*</sup> Meningetis.

<sup>†</sup> Typho-Malarial.

<sup>‡</sup>Old age.

# MORTUARY REPORT FOR MAY, 1888. FROM THIRTEEN TOWNS.

CAUSES OF DEATH.	Ast.eville.	( harlotte.		Durham.	Fayetteville.		Goldsboro.	Henderson		New Berne.		Oxford.	Raleigh.		salisbury.	Tarboro	rationio,	Washington		Wilminoto.			Races.
	W	CW	C	W C	W	CV	C	w	C	W	c	W C	w	CV	C	w	C	w	C	w	C	W	C
Typhoid fever. Sorriet fever. Habital lever. Diphtheria Whooping-couch leastles Pneumonia. Con-umption Brain diseases. Neurotic diseases Neurotic diseases Swel diseases. All other diseases. Suicide. Still-born.	†1 3	7 2	1 2 4	1 2 2 2 1 5 5	4	5				1	5	1	1 1 1 1 8	2 3 5 1	i		   1	2 2 2 4			2  6 12  2	4	10 8 23 3 6 24 31  7
Totals by towns	18	21		12	14	1	4	4		10	)	2	41		2	3	3	4		6	0	1	88
Under five years.	6	1.	1		2	1	3	1		4			18		1					2	3	6	2

REPORTERS.	Towns.	Po	pulati	on.	nua	porary il deat e per l	h-
		w.	C.	Tot.	W.	C.	Tot.
Dr. H. B. Weaver. Dr. J. Seurr Dr. X. M. Johnson. Dr. X. M. Johnson. Dr. J. A. Hodges J. E. Peterson, Mayor. S. Fulcher, City Clerk. Dr. F. R. Harris. Dr. J. B. Williams. Dr. James McKee. Dr. J. J. Summerell. Dr. J. M. Baker. Dr. S. T. Nicholson.	Charlotte Durham Fayetteville Goldsboro New Berne Henderson Oxlord Raleigh Satisbury Tarboro	1,785 1,400 8,000 *3,000 1,300	5,000 3,000 2,500 2,200 3,500 1,715 1,600 7,000 *2,000 1,200	7,000 5,00 6,000 3,500 3,000 15,000 5,000 2,500	18.0 13.3 18.7 8.6 9.6 6.7 17.1 19.5	30.0 28.8 20.0 33.6 10.9 30.9 14.0 48.0	21.6 22.9 16.0 24.0 9.6 20.0 10.3 8.0 32.8 4.4 14.4 12.0

<sup>\*</sup>Estimated.

<sup>†</sup>Bronchitis.

### MORTUARY REPORT FOR JUNE, 1888. FROM TWELVE TOWNS.

	-										_	_								-								_
CAUSES OF DEATH.	4.1	Asheville,	Chowlotto	Cuarione.	Dumbone	- Durnain.	Porotionillo	rayenevine.	Coldebone	- Goldsboro.	Uondonoon	trematron.	Nom Donne	TACM DELITE.	064	- Oalora.	Dulotoh	- margine	Cottoboss	- cansonry.	Postbono	- lar boro.	Wilmington	THE PROPERTY.	Washington	" debluming	Totals by	Races.
	w	c	w	С	w	c	w	c	w	С	w	c	w	c	w	c	w	e	W	c	w	c	w	c	w	c	w	С
Typhoid fever				1											1	1		2					1				2	4
Scarlet lever			l			l																						
Malarial fever							1			١				2			1.						1				3	2
Diphtheria																	22										2	
Whoopi'g-cough.													٠				1											
Mea-les.																	l	3						1				4
I neumonia								1									1										1	1
Consumption	3		1	3	2			2		l		1		1			1	2					2	2		1	-8	14
Brain diseases	1														١		3						3	1			7	1
Heart diseases										1	1			ì			1										2	2
Neurotic dise'ses																	1	1					3	7			4	8
Bowel diseases	4	1	3	3	1	3	4	5	ı			1	4	4	1		4	6			1			15	2		32	39
All other dis'ses	1	7	3	4		3			1					ô			2	4					8	12			17	35
Accident	1				1		1			1	1			1													1	2
Suicide	'																											
Stillb orn					1								1	1			1	2									3	3
	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	_	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	_	-	-	=		-	-	-	-	-	_	-	
	10	8	7	11	7	6	6	8	2	2	2	2	5	15			17	20			1	١	26	38	2	1	85	115
Totals by towns	1	8	1	8	1	3	1	4	4	Į	-	1	2	0	ě	3	3	7			1	l	6	4	- 5		2	00
Under five years	- 6	<b>5</b> ,		5	4		;	3	1		1		1	1	1		1	9			1	1	4	4	2	!	1	2:

Reporters.	Towns.	Po	pulati	on.	ann	npora ual de per l	eath-
		w	c.	Total	w.	C.	Total
Dr. H. B. Weaver	Asheville	6,000		10 000		24.0	21.6
Dr. J Scarr	Charlotte	6,000		11.000		24.1	19.7
Dr. Win. Johnson	Durham	4,500				20 6	19.5
Dr. J. A. Hodges	Fayetteville	4,500				38.4	24.0
J. E. Peterson, Mayor	Goldsboro	2,800		5,000		10.9	9.6
Dr. F. R. Harris	Henderson	1,785		3,500		14.0	14.0 34.3
S. Fulcher, City Clerk	New Berne	3,000		7,000		45.0 7.5	12.0
	Oxford	1,400		3,000		34.3	29,6
	Raleigh	8,000	7,000	, , , , , ,	25.5		
	Salisbury	1 200	1 14 0	0.500	9,2		4.8
	Tarboro	1,300		2,500		90 6	33,4
	Wilmington Washington	9,000		23,000 4,000		32.6	9.0

# MORTUARY REPORT FOR JULY, 1888. FROM ELEVEN TOWNS,

CAUSES OF DEATH.	A hspville.		Charlotte.		Durham.		Favetteville		Goldsboro	***************************************	Henderson.		New Berne.	Oxford.		Raleigh.		salisbury.		Tarboro.	Washington		Wilmington.*		Warrenton.		Totals by Races.
	w	С	W	C	w	С	w	С	w	С	w	c ·	w c	W	C	w	c '	w	v	C	11	С	w	С	w	9 1	w 4
Typhoid tever	7	-	-			-	-	-	-			-		-	1		-		- -	-	-	-	-			- -	3
Scarlet fever									••••				** ***	· .	-									4		•••	0
Malarial fever								1					1 :				1							2			1
Diphtheria																										"i	
Whooping-cough	1																										1
Measles																	1										
Pneumonia																								1			
Consumption																					. 1	- 1	-1	3			4
Brain diseases																							• • •	1			1
Heart dlseases																	1		•• •								3
Neurotic diseases Bower diseases													3	1							1			- 5			3
All other diseases	9	11			1	1						1	?		-	6	0				· · · · ·	1	1	4			2 0
Accid't and violence	1					1			Ĩ								0			•-	. 1	1	U	0			9 4
Suicide						ı '																- 4					-1
Still born						I		1					1				1				1)	. 2		2			3
	-	-	-			_			-	-		_		-	_	_	_				_	_	_	_	_	_	_ -
	8	11			1	Ĝ			3	3	3	5	210	2	4	8	23	4	2		. 5	fi	11	27			46 8
Totals by towns	1	9			-	;	1	Į.	-	5	-8		12	1	5	3	ī	- 6	1		1		3				136
Under five years	1	4			ē	,	1	-		,	7	,	8	1	2	1	7	3	-	-,-	1		1	9			

Reporters.	Towns.	Pop	oulatio	on.	ann	npora ual de per 1	eath
		W.	С.	Total	w.	C.	Total
Dr. H. B. Weaver Dr. J. Scarr			3,500		14.8	87.7	22.8
Dr. N. M. Johnson Dr. J. A. Hodges	Durham			8,000	2 2 5.3	20.0 9.6	9,0 6,8
J. E. Peterson, Mayor Dr. F. R. Harris	Henderson	$\frac{2.800}{1,785}$	2,200 1,715	5,000 3,500	13.0	16 3 35.0	14.4 27.4
Dr. J. B. Williams	Oxford	3000 1,500	1,600		16.0	20.0 30.0 39.4	18.9 23.2 24.8
Dr. J. J. Summered Dr. J. M. Baker	+Salisbury	8,000		15,000			
Dr. S. T. Nicholson Dr. F. W. Potter	Washington	2,400	1,600	4,000	25 0	45.0	33.0 19.8
Dr. P. J. Macon	Warrenton					.,	

<sup>\*</sup>Of these, one was executed by law, and two were brought in for interment.

<sup>†</sup>Omitted in totals-diseases and population not being given.

## MORTUARY REPORT FOR AUGUST, 1888. FROM FOURTEEN TOWNS.

Causes of Death.		Ashevine.	Chambatta	Charlotte.	Damboom	Durnam.	Panottomillo	rayetteville.		Goldsboro.		- Henderson,	Moun Doung	New Dellie.	Outoud	Oxlord.	Dolotoh	training.	Coli. busine	Sansonis.	Turboro	turiono.	Washington	W delinipoli.	Wilmington		Groonshoro	Circonsonio.	Totals by	Races.
	w	c	w	e	w	e	w	(ª	w	e	w	c	w	e	w	(	w	C	W	c	w	c	w	(.	w	e	w	e	w	c
	-	_	-		_	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		-	-		-	-		-		-	-1	-	-			
Typhoid fever			3			1										***	15	8						,	1	1			8	5
Scarlet tever																														
Malarial fever							2																4	)					3	5
Diptheria													,			:					. 1		1,			• • • •			4	3
											***									***		•••		****		•••				
Measles								***		***	***							- 1								1	•••			2
Pneumonia			1	1				٠٠.																					1	1
Consumption							ι	1			10		1	3		1	- 1	1		••				• • •		7	3	3	13	18
Brain di-eases			1												***		- 2	2		•••	• • • •	٠		••••	L	•••	• • •		6	2 2
Heart diseases	- 1		1	i			ı											•••				• • •		•••	2	1			5	2
Neurotic dis'es					٠.	***			٠.							1.7									1	1	•••	• • • •	.2	1
Bowel diseases			1	9	1	2	1	1	. 1	1		17		3	1	1 3	2	9		****	***	***	•••	3	2	ŏ	•••	••••	!!!	24
All other dis'es	1	13		3	• • • •	1	***				• • • •	1		0	1	3	. 2	ti			• • • •	••	•••	1	4	15			141	32
Accid't & vi'l'nce	***			-1	•••		• • • •				****			1 2	• • • •	***					•••		•••	2		-1	1	***	1	6
Suicide					• • •	•••	• • • •		***	***	****	***		2								•••		• • • •	1	٠,	•••	•••	1	11
Still-born			1	2	2	•••	***		***					2			***	10)		•••		••••	•••	•••		4	•••	•••	-0	11
	-6	13	10	12	3	6	5	2	1	1	1	1	9	19	4	7	14	21	3	1	1	_	1	7	12	35	4	3	7.0	112
	-		10	100				-				-	-	10	-	•				-						0.7				
Totals by towns	1	9	2	3	9	9		7		2		2	2	1	1	1	3	5		4		l		8	4	7		7	18	84
Under 5 years			10	)	8	3				2			1	2		8	2	1		1				5	2	3			8	30

Reporter.	Towns.	Po	pulati	ion,	nua	orary I deat 1.000.	an- h rate
	,	W.	C.	Total	W.	C.	Total
Dr. H. B. Weaver	Charlotte	7,000 6,000 5,000 4,500 2,000 1,7*5 3,000 1,500 8,000		7,000 5,000 3,500 7,000 3,200	9.0 18.9 7.2 13.3 3.6 6.0 15.9 31.2 13.4	48,8 31,2 24,0 9,6 4,8 6,0 57,0 34,8 36,0	22.8 24.0 13.4 12.0 48.0 6.8 39.3 33.6 24.0
Dr. J. J. Sumerell Dr. J. M. Baker. Dr. S. T. Nicholson Dr. F. W. Potter. Dr. B. M. Tate.	S-lisbury Tarbo-o Washington Wilmington	1,100 2,400 9,000	1,400 1,600 14,000	4,159 2,500 4,000	21.7 4.9 -15.9	5.16 28.0	11.4 96.0 24.0 22.8 14.4

# MORTUARY REPORT FOR SEPTEMBER, 1888. FROM FOURTEEN TOWNS.

Causes o Death	Asheville.		Charlotte.		Durham.		Fayetteville.		Goldsboro.		New Berne.		Raleigh.		Parooro.		W chinelan.		Wilmington.		Henderson.	The state of the s	Salisbury.		Greensboro.		- Oxford.		Totals by	Races.
	W	C	w	C	w	C	W	C	w	c	w	C	w	C	w	C	w	C	æ	C	w	C	w	C	w	C	w	C	w	C
	-	-	_	-	-		-	-	-	-	-	-1	-	-	-	-	-	-		-	-	-	-	-		-	-	-		
Typh'id lev'r		Ł	2	-1					•••	****							1			2			1						4	4
Scarlet fever									•••	***	•••			• • • •			• • •												).	
Malarial fev.				1	1	1			•••		1	5						1		4							1		3	12
Diphtheria		•••	-1						٠.,					1	1									•••					2	2 2
Wh'p'g c'gh,		•••	•••	•••			•••			•••		2							•••										**	2
Measies	•••						•••					•••		•••			•••							••••		****	••••			3
Pneumonia.				2					•••	ï	***	1	4	***	••••		••	1	ï		• • •	1	•••	••••		••••		••		10
	-							1	••••		ï		- 1		••••						**				1		1		11	
				1	"	•••						-2				***	-			i					H		1	••••	7	- 7
				î	****		1						-	1						1	****				1	1	ń	"	91	8
Bowel dis	ï	***		٠.	3		•		1	1		10	5	2				ï				2	2		•••	ů	1	-	14	17
All other dis.		7	1	2		2					2 2	4	3	10				2	4	8	1							1	ii	36
Accid'nt and		-																	1									H)		
violence																				1			1						1	
Sulcide										١																				
Still born	1			4		1		.2				- 1	1	2					1	3						4			3	17
	-	_	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		1-	-	-	-	_	-	-	_	_	-	
	4	8	6	15	5	6	1	4	1	2	6	25	15	18	1		3	ő	6	28	1	4	4		6	5	5	2	64.	119
Tot.by towns	1	2	2	21	1	1	- 8	5	3	3	2	31	:	3:3	1		-	ς_	-	31	-	5	-	1	1	11	7	-	1	83
Under 5 y'ars	-	_	1	0	1	3	-	2	5	2	1	21	-	24			1 :	3	-	17	:	3	:	:	-		]		1	14

		Por	oulati			orary Id at	h-
REPORTERS.	Towns.	w	c.	Total	w.	С.	Tot.
Dr. H. B. Weaver	Asheville	5,000 6,000				32 0 38.0	20.5 25.0
Dr. N. M. Johnson Dr. J. A. Hodges	Charlotte Durham Fayetteville	4,500 4,500	3,000	7,500	13,3	21.0 19.2	18.6 10.9
J. E. Peterson, Mayor	Goldsboro New Berne	2,800 2,000	2,2 0	5 000	4.2	10.9 12.4	7.5 8.0
	Raleigh Tarboro	8,000 1,300	1,290	2,500	9.2	27,4	9,2
Dr. S. T. Nicholson Dr. F. W. Potter	Washington			23,000	7.9	37.5 24.0 27.9	26.5 15.9 17.3
Dr. F. R. Harris Dr. J J Summerell Dr. R. W. Tate				5,000			9.6
Dr. J. B. Williams			1,600		39.9	15.0	27.4

### MORTUARY REPORT FOR OCTOBER, 1888. FROM THIRTEEN TOWNS.

Causes of Death.	Durbam	Durmann.	s'ntoswillo	Sign exville.	harlotta	יומווסווב	Eux offortillo	rayetteville.	Codd-1.	crotosporo,	Nom D	. INEW ISOTHE.	Dodoin	naleign.	"Possel	rarboro	Wooling	washington.	Wilmington		Henderson	"Horizonii"	Salishum	. Cimocino.	O moon of	oreensporo.	Orford	Oxiora.	Totals by	Races.
Typhoid fever Scarlet fever Maharial fever Diphtheria Whoopi 's cough Measles and Consumption Consumption Brain diseases Neurotic dis'ses Sowel diseases All other dis'ses Acci'nt & v'I'nce Suicide Still-born	w 1			-  ï	w 1	- 1  1  1	- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -			- - - - - - - - - - - - -	 2  2  1	1 1 2 4	2  1 1  2 3 1	2 5		 1			w	1 7 1 1 3 8 1 2 11 2	1	1  1  2  1 	2				w	1	5	c 6 :: 13 3 :: : 4 10 5 4 4 11 32 :: 7 :: 99
Totals by towns. Under 5 years	-	7		7	22	_	10		_	6	2	1	2	7 8	_	1			2	_	_	7	-	3 2			_	9	16	9

Reporter,	Towns.	Po	pulati	on,	nua	orary l deatl	an- n-rate
		W.	C.	Total	W.	C.	Total
Dr. N. M. Johnson	Statesville	4,500 4,500 4,500 2,800 2,000 8,000 1,300		3,500 7,500 7,000 5,000	9.0 2.6 4.2 3.6 22,5 9.2	32.0 19 2 10.7 12.4 27 4	20.5- 10.9- 7.55- 8.0 21.9- 9.2
Dr. S. T. Nicholson Dr. F. W. Potter. Dr. F. R. Harris. Dr. J. J. Summerell Dr. R. W. Tate. Dr. J. B Williams.	Washington	2,400 9,000 1,785 4,000	1,600	4 000 23,000 3,500 5,000 6,000	15.0 7 9 6.7	37.5 24.0 27.9	26.5 15.9 17.3 9.6 12.0 27 4

# MORTUARY REPORT FOR NOVEMBER, 1888. FROM FOURTEEN TOWNS.

												_	_		_				_											
CAUSES OF DEATH.	Acheville	Asheville.	Charlotte.		Durham.		Goldsboro.		Greenshoro		Henderson		Favetteville.		Oxford		Raleigh.		- New Berne.		Salisbury.		- Tarboro.		Washington		Wilmington	willington.	Totals by	IMCco.
	w	С	w	С	w	c	w	C	w	c	w	C	w	c	w	c	w	С	w	C	w	c	w	C	w	c	w	c	w	C
Typhoid fev'i	_																													1
Scarlet fever			,				•••		***		• • • •		•••			***						•••		•••	•••	****			1	1
Malarial f-ver			- :	•••	1	• • •	•••	• • • •				•••		***	***	***		•••		1						****	****		3	4
Diphtheria				••••	1	•••	•••	•••	***	• • • •						•••		•••	- '			***			***	••••	****	••••	i.	
Wh'p'g-co'gh.																***	,	•••		***					•••			····		
Pneumonia														2		1		ï					1					2	7	1
Consumption														ĩ														2	5	2
Brain dis'ses		•••	-	٠		*																							2.	
Heart dis ses				1	1																		1		1			3	5	4
Neurotic dis																												3		3
Bowel dis'es			1		1									-1				-2	1						1		5	1	5	5
All other dis.	1		3	2		1	'					1	1		2		1	5	1	3	2		-1	2	1		5	10	18	24
Accid't& vi'ce				1										1														]	·	2
Suicide																	1		[	•••						••••			1 .	
Still-born		7		1			1			•••		2				•••	1	3		1				•••				();	3:	:3
	-	-	-	-	5	2	-	-	4	-			3	5	2	1	5	100	.,	0	,		2	•;	2			.)7	41	-6
	-	. 7	7		_	-				0		-4	_		_	'			-0					-			-			
Tot'ls by to'ns	1 8	8	1.	7	7		1		-	7		1	1	8	7	3	1	7	1	1	2	4	ē	)	-	3	3	4	11	-
Under 5 years		7	1	1	4		1				:	2		1			ę	)	. 6	5							(	3	4	

Reporters.	Towns.	Poj	pulati	on.	ann	npora ual de per l	eath-
		w.	С.	Total	w.	C.	Total
Dr. H. B. Weaver	Asheville	7.000	3.000	10,000	1.6	27.6	9.6
Dr. J. Scarr		4,500			12,1	24.0	15.1
Dr. N. M. Johnson		4,500		7,500	6.0	12.0	9.6
Dr. J. A. Hodges,		4,500	2,500	7,000	7,2	24.0	12.1
J. E. Peterson	Goldsboro	2,800	2,200	5,000	7.2	12.8	12.1
Dr. R W. Tate	Green-boro	4,000	2,000	6,000	12.0	12.6	12.1
Dr. F. R. Harris	Henderson	1,785	1,715		12.1		24.3
	New Berne	2,000			12.1	24.0	18.0
Dr. J. B. Williams	Oxford	-1,500			12.6	6.0	9.6
Dr. Jas. McKe e	Raleigh	8,000			121	7.2	12.8
	Tarboro	1,300	1,200		22.6	19.2	24.0
Dr. J. J. Summerell				5,000	1 . 0		9.6
	Washington		1,600				
Dr. F. W. Potter	Wilmington	9,000	14,000	23,000	7.2	13.0	11.0

# MORTUARY REPORT FOR DECEMBER, 1888. FROM FOURTEEN TOWNS,

-	_	_	_	-	,	-	_	-			_	-				_				-									
Causes of Death.	Choldshore	TOTOTOTOTO	Dulolah	maleign.	Durham	Dat nam.	Favetteville			wasnington,		rarboro.*	Vous Dans	wew perme.	Henderson.		Statesville.		Asheville,		Oxford,*	Groonsboro	orcemoson.	Wilmington		Charlotte,		Totals by	Kaces.
	117	c	w	c	w	С	w	C	11.	(	w	С	w	С	w	c	w	c	w	CW	C	w	c	w	c	w	C'I	77	c
		_		_		_		_	_				_		_	_					_	-		_	_				_
Typh'd fever			1		4)										1										9	5	1	9	3
Scarlet fever		•••	-	•••	•																				~		1	U	
Mal'ri'l fever																												1	1
Diphther:a																													
Wh'p'g-co'gh	• • • •	***		•••																									
Measles	•••	***		•••																							• •		
Pneumonia																													
Caramonia	***	1		- 2																				2		1.		4 .	12
Consumpti'n		. 1	- 1	4			1	2																	2		1	5	14
Brain dis ses				1																									2
H'art dis ses																						- 1		1			1	3	1
Neurotic fev.					1	]		1																				2	1
Bowel dis'ses				1		2			1	2															1		1	1	7
All other dis.	1	1	2	5			1		1				2	4	1/				2	4				4	10:	3.	1	17	24
Accidentand																													
violence	)							1					1															9	1
Suicide	- 1							-								****							****					ī	•
Still-born	-			2		***		•••	•••				****	3	***	***	****			***		****	****	2	•)	****	1	9	8
									***	**		****			***		**	••••				***	••••	-	-			-	G
	3	3	5	15	3	5	3	5	2	4			7	13	2	2		1	2	5	1	3	2	10	19	9	5	50	77
		_	1	,		_		_	Ē	_	-	-	_	_	_	_	_	_		-  -			_	-		_	-1	_	_
Tot.by towns	(j		! 2	9)	8	1	8		6				2	0	4		1		7			5		29	9	14		1	27
Under 5 y'rs.	2		5		4	-			3				7		1	_			6	-		l		10	)	3			

Reporters.	Towns.	Po	pulati	on,		orary l deat per l	h-
2732 0772270.	201131	w.	C.	Tot.	w.	C.	Tot.
J. E. Peterson, Mayor	Goldsboro	2.800	2.200	5,000	12.0	12.3	12.2
Dr. James McKee	Raleigh	8,000				25.2	15.6
Dr N. M. Johnson,	Durham	4,500	3,500	8,000	7.2	18.8	12.0
Dr. J. A. Hodges	Fayetteville	4, 00	2,500	7,000	7.2	24.0	12.1
Dr. S. T. Nicholson	Washington	3,490	1,600	4,000	10.0	30.0	28.0
Dr. J. M. Baker							
S. Fulcher, City Clerk	New Berne	3.000		7,000	17.6	38.4	33.6
Dr. F. R. Harris.,		1,785	1,715	3,500	13.2	13.2	13.2
Dr. M. W. Hill	Statesville**						2.5
Dr. H. B. Weaver	Asheville			10,000		19.2	8.4
Dr. J. B. Williams	Oxford*	1,500					
Dr. R. W. Tate	Greensboro	4,000		6,000		12.0	9.6
Dr. F. W. Potter	Wilmington		14,000			15.6	14.5
Dr. J. Scarr	Charlotte	4,500	3,000	7,500	12.0	12.7	12.9

<sup>\*</sup>No deaths.

<sup>\*\*</sup>Population not given.

### TEMPERATURE REPORT FOR JANUARY, 1887.

				TE	1P	ERA	TUR	E.					No	), ]	DAYS.	inclu- w and es).	
STATIONS.	Mean monthly.	Highest,	Date.	Lowest.	Date.	Range.	Mean daily range	Greatest daily range.		Leas, daily range.	Date.	Clear.	( londy.	Fair.	On which rain fell, including hail, snow and sleet.	Total rain-fall, i ding hail, snov sleet, (in inche	Prevailing wind.
Smithville																	
Hatteras	14.7	65.6	23	198	19	458	15.3	28.8		5.9		11	9	11	.5	6.09	N.
Knoxville, Tenn	37.5	68.8	31	5.4	3	63.4	20.7	36.5		7.4 4.9		18	4	14	10		S. W.
Charlotte	$ 38 ^{2}$	68.9	31	8.2	4	60.7	17.8	28.1	19	4.9	5	9	5	17	12	2.39	S. W.
Fort Macon																	
Lynchburg, Va	35,4	65.4	23	6.1	4	59.3	18.4	29.0		68		13	9	9	11	2.64	S. W.
Wake Forest	39.8	71.1	23	7.0	11	64.0					- **				9 8 13	3.01	S. W.
Kitty Hawk	31.0	69.7	22	14.8	19	54.9		38.1	5)	4.4					8		S. W.
Wilmington	14.2	73.0	22	14.6	19	58 4	19.3	34.6	28	6.8	c	11	6		15		S. W.
Chapel Hill	39.1	72.0	a	8.0	b	64.0	17.6	37.0	16	4.0	5	17	9	5	6	2.81	S. W.
Average	40.0	69 3		10.5		58.8	18.2	33.2	l	57		12	7	12	12	3.35	s.w.

a, 21st and 23d; b, 4th, 11th and 19th; c, 6th and 8th.

### TEMPERATURE REPORT FOR FEBRUARY, 1787.

				Тғм	PI	ERA	TUR	E.				1	No	. I	AYS.	neru- and	
STATIONS.	Mean monthly.	Highest.	Date.	Lowest.	Date.	Range.	Mean daily range	Greatest daily range.	Date.	Least daily	Date.	Clear.	Fair.	Cloudy.	On which rain tell, including hall, snow and sleet.	Total ram-fall, it ding hail, snow sleet, (in inches)	Prevailing wind.
Smithville																	
Hatteras																	
Knoxville, Tenn	49.6	72.8	10	21.6	27	51.2	17.4	26.8		7.0		0	11	12	16		S. W.
Charlotte	48.9	70.8	11	25.7	13	45.1	17.4	27.5		5.3	***	3	12	13	16	4.81	S. W.
Fort Macon																	
Lynchburg, Va Wake Forest Kitty Hawk	43.7	72.2	11	20.0	14	52.2	187	29.1		5.5		2	12	14	11	3.51	S. W.
Wake Forest	49.8	74.7	1	20.2	14	54.5									12	4.39	S.W.
Kitty Hawk	50.6	75.4	11	29.1	28	46.2		34.5	12	5.9	. 1				10 13		S. W.
Wilmington	54.7	75.0	9	27.2	14	47.8	19 1	31.3	27	7.1	23	8	11	9	13	1.61	3. W.
Chapel Hill	48.1	79.0	1	22.0	14	57.0	20.8	36.0	1	6.0	21	8	3	17	13	4.62	S. W.
A verage.	49.3	74.3		23.7		50.7	187	30.9		6.1		10	10	13	13	4,24	s. w.

## TEMPERATURE REPORT FOR MARCH, 1887.

				Te	n E	D 4 T	URI						Y.	_	DAYS.	-pu	
				1 1.	r-r.	KAI	UAL	2.					74.6	<i>,</i> .	DA15.	includ- ow and es).	
STATIONS.	Mean monthly.	Highest.	Date.	Lowest,	Date.	Range.	Mean daily range.	Greatest daily range.	Date.	Least daily range.	Date.	Clear.	Fair.	Cloudy.	On which rain fell, including hall, snow and sleet.	Total rain-fall, in ing hail, snow sleet (in inches)	Prevailing wind.
Smithville,											-						
Hatteras																	
Knoxville, Tenn	47.9	75 6	26	21.6	20	54 0	20.2	37.2		7.		12	٨	11	11		S. W.
Charlotte Fort Macon,		79.7	2	26.8	18	52.9	22.3	36.4		6.0		12	11	8	8	2,93	s. W.
Lynchburg, Va		80 6		28.5	30	57 1	20.1	47.6		2.0	"	····	15		9	9.58	N.W.
Wake Forest	47.9	80.0	٠ş	20.3	30	59	20,1	41.0							7	4.45	N.W.
Kitty Hawk	49.3	74.2	2	26.0	30	18.2	22.4	36.5	2	4.6	26				11		N. E.
Kitty Hawk Wilmington	52,1	81.9	. 3	27.7	30	51.2	2:,4	33,6	i	10.3	5	15	11	5	6		S. W.
Chapel Hill	43.7	83.0	2	26 0	30	57.0	22.4	40.0	2	3.0		16	8	7	7	3,93	W.
Average	47.4	79.3		24.6		54.7	21,5	38.5		5.8		13	10	8	8	3,42	s. w.

## TEMPERATURE REPORT FOR APRIL, 1887.

			,	ГЕМ	PE	RAT	URE	C.					No	o. ]	DAYS.	includ w and ss).	
STATIONS.	Mean monthly.	Highest.	Date.	Lowest.	<b>Дяте</b> ,	Range.	Mean daily range.	Greatest daily range.	<b>Date.</b>	Least daily range.	Date.	Clear.	Fair.	Cloudy.	On which rain fell, including hail, snow and Net t.	Total rain-fall, in ing rain, snow sleet (in inches).	Prevalling wind,
Statesville	56.9	87,0		30.					-						9	2.72	N.W.
Smithville Hatteras	57.0	75.6		20. =		20.6		23.3			:::		;;	;	9	2.71	N. E.
Knoxville, Tenn	59.0	88.7	18	99.7	6	59.6	54.4	26.8	19	11.5	20	14	19	4		4.33	S. W.
Charlotte	59,3	89.3	13	32.1	2	57.2	23.4	36.3	8	6.6	ĩ	lá	iī	4	19	1.84	s. w.
Fort Macon									l								
Lynchburg, Va	53.5	85.4	12	30,9	3	54.5	22.7	41.2		5.0		8	15	7		3.29	s. w.
Wake Forest				27.3	6	59.7									8	1.85	s. W.
Kitty Hawk Wilmington	50.0	85.7	100	20 0	**	50.5	200 =	33.6	19	19.9	99	:::	8	4	11	3,95	s.
Chapel Hill	58.3	91.0	12	28.0	6	63.0	26.3	41.0	10	6.0	120	18	6			2,56	s.w.
	i—		1-	-	_	_		I	-		-	_	_	_			
Average	57.5	86,2		30.9		55.1	21,9	35.7	1	8.3		14	11	5	9	2.91	s. W.

# TEMPERATURE REPORT FOR MAY, 1887.

				TE	нР	ERA	TUF	E.					N	o. :	DAYS.	nehu- and s).	
STATIONS.	Mean monthly.	Highest.	Date.	Lowest,	Dale.	Range.	Mean daily range.	Greatest daily range.	Date.	Least daily range.	Date.	Clear.	Fair.	Cloudy.	On which rain fell, including hail, snow and. sleet.	Total rain-fall, 1 ding hall, snow sleet, (in inche	Prevalling wind
Hatteras	69.1	78.2	18	55.3	18	29 9	10.0	20.1	18	6.2	18	16	10	5	10	2.58	S.
Knoxville, Tenn	70.2	87.9	a	52.3	ĭ	35.6	22.4	35.5	1	10.8	6	11	16	4			s. w.
Charlotte															16	3.64	E.
Fort Macon																	
Lynchburg, Va																	
Kitty Hawk																	
Kitty Hawk Wilmington	71.1	87.5	18	47.0	15	10.5	18.2	38.5	17	7.4	23	11	14	6	14	5 62	S. W.
Chapel Hill Wake Forest																	
Wake Forest	70.7	90.2	18	43.2	15	47.0									13	2.58	S. E.
	=		-	10.0				-20.0	-		-	-	_		-10	12.04	~
Average	70.3	87.8		19.6		31.3	17.6	28.6		8,1	***	11	13	- 6	13	3.84	s.

### TEMPERATURE REPORT FOR JUNE, 1887.

				ГЕМ	PE	RAT	URI	g.					Ne	). I	DAYS.	nelu- v and s).	
STATIONS.	Meau monthly.	Highest,	Date.	Lowest.	Date.	Range '	Mean daily range.	Greatest daily range.	trate.	Least daily range.	Date.	Clear,	Fair	Cloudy.	On which rain fell, including hail, snow and sleet.	Total rain-fall, i ding hail, snow sleet, (in inches	Prevailing wind
Hatteras, Knoxville, Tenn Charlotte Fort Macon Lynchburg, Va Wake Forest	$74.0 \\ 75.0$	96 0 101,9	$\frac{20}{20}$	51.4 52.8	12	49.1	22.4 29		13 19	$10.5 \\ 14.4$	$\frac{22}{11}$	16 9	14	6	6	3.41 3 07 4.44 3.65	N. S. W. E. N. E.
Kitty Hawk Wilmington Chapel Hill	75.6 70.7	97.9 93.0	20 a	53.0 45.0	13 b	44.9 48.0	17.5 21.6	31.0 39.0	14	6.0 7.7 6.0 8.4	23 31	11 12	10	8	6 13 9 	4.31 6.41 6.59 4.55	s. w.

a, 18th and 19th; b, 1st and 15th.

## TEMPERATURE REPORT FOR JULY, 1887.

				TEM	IP:	ERA	TUR	E.					N	0,	DAYS.	includ-	
STATIONS.	Mean Monthly.	Highest.	Date.	Lowest.	Date.	Range.	Mean dal.y range.	Greatest daily range.	Date.	Least daily range.	Date,	Clear.	Fair.	Cloudy.	On which rain fell, including hail, snow and sleet.	Total rain fall, in ing haii, snow a sleet (in inches	Prevailing wind.
H-tteras	72 4	84.5	19	60.5	12	22.3	8,3	13,1	10	4.4	25	11	11	-8	9	3,42	N.
Knoxville, Tenn.	74.0	96.0	20	51.4	2	44 6	22.4	30,1	13	10,5					6	3.07	S.W.
	75.0	101,9								14.4			15		10	4.44	E.
Lynchburg	72.8	97.7			12	44.0	22.3 17.2	33.3	7	10.0 6.0		H			11 6	3.65	N.E.
Kitty Hawk	72.7 75.6	07.0	-20	57.0	12	11 0	17.5	21.0	1	7.7	12	11	11	8	13	4.31	61 337
Wilmington Chapel Hill	70.7		-0	15.0	h	48 (	24.6	39.0	1	6.0					9	6.50	S.W.
Smithville	10.1	00.0	**	13,0	"	10.0	-1.0	.,0.0	Ľ	0,0	"	12	**			0.00	· · ·
Fort Macon			***														
			-		-		-			_	-	_	-	-			
Average	78.8	95.2		52,6		42.6	19.2	29.9		8.4							

## TEMPERATURE REPORT FOR AUGUST, 1887.

				Тем	ΡĮ	ERA?	rvr	E.					No	), i	DAYS.	elud.	
STATIONS.	Mean Monthly.	Highest	Date.	Lowest.	Date,	Kange.	Mean daily range.	Greatest daily range.	Date.	Least daily	Date,	Clear.	Fair.	Cloudy.	On which rain fell, including hail, snow and	Total rain-fall, included ing hail, snow a	Prevailing wind.
Knoxville, Tenn.	75.0	94.1	5	53.9	31	40.2	19.2	25 4	12	6.8	1	13	14	4	13	4.48	N. E.
Charlotte	74.7	95.1	6	52.8	31	42,3	19,4	27.3	12	7.2				12	16	9.02	N. E.
Lynchburg, Va	74.0	95.2	11	49.8	30	45.4	19.8	29.3	10	7.8	2	12	11	8	13	4.73	S
Wilmington Southport											24	11	10	4	14	9,88	S. W
Hatteras														***			
Fort Macon															*******		
Wake Forest																	
Kitty Hawk																	
Chapel Hill																	
Average	- O	010	-	50.0	-	11.0	10.0	20.0	-	0.5	-	-	-	-	14	7.00	0.00
a verage	19.3	94.8		99.0		41.8	18.2	20.0		0.7	***	11	13	- 1	14	7.03	8.61

## TEMPERATURE REPORT FOR SEPTEMBER, 1887.

				TEM	1P.	ERA	TUR	E.					No	). ]	DAYS.	chud	
STATIONS.	Mean monthly.	Highest.	Date.	Lowest.	Date.	Range.	Mean daily range.	Greatest dally range.	Date.	Least daily range.	Date.	(Jear,	Fair.	Cloudy.	On which rain fell, including hall, snow and sleet	Total rain tall, included ing hail, snow sleet (In inches).	Prevailing wind.
Hatteras. Knoxville, Tenn. Charlotte. Lynchburg, Va. Wake Forest. Kitty Hawk Wilmington. Chapel Hill.	69 9 69.1 66.7 70 4 71.2	91.0 98.0 96.9 94.1 91.0	14 14 14 15 14	37.8 36.0 35.8 43.6 42.3	25 25 25 26 25	56.2 62.0 60.1 50.5 48.7	22.8 27.6 21.4 18.1 17.9	31.2 38.0 34.7 32.2	3 10	7.4 1.2 7.1 6.4	30 28 14	15	10 9 11	5 10 	9	1.39	N. E. S. W. w sw N. E.
Average			-		-				-		-		-		,		

## TEMPERATURE REPORT FOR OCTOBER, 1887.

STATIONS.					ny range.	ily ge.		e.				ii.	age of	includ- ow and oes).	wind.
Mean m Highest.	Date.	Lowest	Date.	Range.	Mean daily	Greatest daily range	Date.	Least daily range	Dute.	Clear.	Fair.	Cloudy. On which ra	tell, including hall, snow an sleet.	Total rain-fall, ing hail, sm	Prevailing wi
Hatteras 37.5 79.	01 8	42.1	31	37.5	11.0	24.8	31	5.3	27	16	3	12	12	11.07	N.
Knoxville, Tenn 54.1 82.6	9	27 9	31	35.7	22,4	35.7		4.6		15	9	7	8		S. W
harlotte 38.0 83.	9 10	35.5	30	48.4	18.5	3).6		5.8		15	5	11	14	8.04	N. h
ort Macon															
ynchburg, Va 50.2 88.	2 10	30.0	16	5 .2	21.0	36.2	8	7.1				10	10	8.31	
hapel Htll 57.0 90.0	0.10	34.0	16	58.0	19.9	40.0	13				3	12	12	11.21	w.
Citty Hawk, 63.4 87.	6 3	45.5	12	42.1	18,1	30.3		8.1					8	4.37	
Vilmington 62,7 85,	3 3	34.8	31	50,5	18,6	29,2	16	5.4	29	14	5	12	10	6 53	N.W
Vake Forest															

# TEMPERATURE REPORT FOR NOVEMBER, 1887.

				Тем	PI	RA'	TUR	Е.					N	0.	DAYS.	clu- and	
STATIONS.	Mean monthly.		Date.	Lowest.	Date.	Range.	Mean dally range.	Greatest dally range.	Date.	Least dally range.	Date.	Clear.	Falr.	Cloudy.	On which rain tell, including hail, snow and sleet.	Total raintall, in ding bail, snow sleet (in inches	Prevailing wind
Hatteras	54 2	72.8	26	38 6	22	34.2	14.7	25.3	28	7.8	9	15	7	8	8		N.
Knoxville, Tenn	50.1	78.0	26	21.5	21	52.4	23.0	34.2	16	7.9	18	14	10	4	12		N. E. S. W.
Fort Moson																	
Lynchburg, Va Chapel Hill Kitty Hawk	46.3	75.3	-1	22,4	30	52.9	22 4	40.9	3	4.7	46	13	11	5	6		S. W.
Chapel Hill	47.9	76.0	27	25 (	21	51 0	24.3	38,0	3	6.0	19	17	0	7	3		wsw
Wilmington	51.8	72.5	18	26.0	-22	17.9	21 1	20.0	24	10.1	30	164			8		N.
Wake Forest	17.0	1.0.0	-1	20.0	41	31.0	-1,0	-9=+9	24	10.2	-0	10	U	-	0	1.04	24.
			-						-			-	-	-			
Average												١					1

### TEMPERATURE REPORT FOR DECEMBER, 1887.

				TE:	иР	ERA	TUE	RE.				2	Νe	). I	DAYS.	clu- vand s).	
STATIONS.	Mean monthly.	Highest.	Patte.	Lowest.	Date.	Range.	Mean monthly range.	Greatest dally range.	Date,	Least dadly range.	Date.	Clear.	Pair.	Cloudy.	On which rain fell, including hall, snow and sleet.	Tetal recognity reding hall, snow sleet (in inches	Prevalling wind
Hatteras	17.0	310	11	22.0	20	21.1	111	20.7	21	7.2	10	6	13	12	15	6.96	N.
Knoxville, l'enn	20.6	61.0	11	12 6	-20	=0.1	116	97.7	91					1+	18	3.49	74.
Charlette	39.0	30 8	7	16.2	20	16.5	15.8	26.5	***	B 5						4.94	W.
Fort Macon				10.0	1917	10.0	10,0	211413		17.00		''	1.1	1.	10	1.01	***
Lynchburg, Va	27 0	811	iii	19 0	30	10 5	15.4	21.4	7	5 :	25	8	1	11	14	1.28	NW
Chapel Hill																6.19	W.
Kitty Hawk	46 6	66 0	15	18.7	30	47.8	18 2	33.8	18	5.9	25		• •	11		4.14	
Wilmington	48.1	67.0	15	19 0	30	48.0	17.5	28.6	3	5.3	10	9	11	:1	13	4.41	N. E
Wake Forest					00			-5.0						ı.			
												_		-			
Average																	

#### TEMPERATURE REPORT FOR JANUARY, 1888.

				TE	IP.	ERA	TUR	E.					N	o. l	DAYS.	elud.	
STATIONS.	Mean Monthly.	Highest.	Date.	Lowest.	Date.	Range.	Mean daily range,	Greatest daily range.	Date.	Least daily range.	Date.	Clear,	Fair	Cloudy.	On which rain- fell, including hail, snow and sleet.	Total rain fall, in ing hall, snr wa sleet (In inch. ('s	Prevailing wind.
Hatteras	40.0	70.0	6	12.0	19	58.0	14.8 15.0 19.8	29,0		3.0		3	12 17 12		13 17 14	4.85 6.61 4.38	N. W. S. W.
Lynchburg, Va Chapel Hill Kitty Hawk	39,4 44 6	75.0 70.5	†	16.0 17.3	19	59.0 53.2	18.5 18.5	34.0	10	6 0 4.3	3 22	9	8		10 7 10	2.99 3.37 5.65	** † N.
Wilmington Wake Forest	46.5	75.1 	7	20.0	19	55.1	19.5	32.5	30	8.5	17		 -	9	17	2.21	N. W

<sup>\*7</sup> and 22. †7 and 8. \*\*N. W. and S. W. ‡W. and S. W.

### TEMPERATURE REPORT FOR FEBRUARY, 1888.

				ГЕМ	PE	CRA'	fUR	E.				N	Ĭο,	DAYS.	eind-	
STATIONS.	Mean Monthly.	Highest.	Date.	Lowest.	Date.	Range.	Mean daily range.	Greatest daily range	Date.	Least daily range.	Date.	СІеят.	Cloudy.	On which rain- fell, including hall, snow and sleet	Total rain fall, in ing hail, snow a sleet (in inches).	Prevailing wind.
Knoxville, Tenn Charlotte	45.3	55.5 57.0 70.0	18	9.1	28	57.9	17.0	34.3		4.8 6.0 10.0		6	9.14	13	3 83 3.75 4.26	N. W.
Fort Macon Lynchburg, Va Chapel Hill Kitty Hawk	$\frac{47.2}{46.1}$	72.0 $72.1$	18 25	$\frac{14.0}{22.5}$	28 28	$58.0 \\ 49.6$	$\frac{20.1}{17.2}$	39.0	29	5.0	12.	11	5 18	7	4.01	** W.
Wilmington Wake Forest,	19.6	72.0	-	24,6		47.4	19.0	33,3	11	5.1	21	10 1	3 6	12	6.22	N. E.

<sup>\*16</sup> and 28. ††14 and 17. ‡S. W. and S. \*\*N. E. and N. W.

## TEMPERATURE REPORT FOR MARCH, 1888.

				TEN	1 P.	ERA	TUR	E.					N	0.	DAYS.	nclu- r and s).	
STATIONS.	Mean monthly,	Highest,	Da e.	Lowest.	Date,	Range.	Mean daily range.	Greatest daily range.	Date,	Least daily range,	Date.	Clear,	Fair.	Cloudy.	On which rain fell, including hail, snow and sleet.	Total rain-fail, i ding hail, snow sleet, (in inche	Prevailing wind
Hatteras Knoxville, Tenn	48.0 46.9	69.0 76.4	29 20	25.8 19.0	23 23	43 2 57.4	13 1 20.2	20.2 37.5	29	2 3 7.5	28	12	12	7	10	5.07 4.22	N. E. N.
Charlotte	49.3													s	11	6,22	S. W. N,W.
Fort Macon Lynchburg, Va Chapel Hill	$\frac{42.7}{47.3}$	80.1 78.0	31 31	$\frac{16.5}{20.0}$	23 23	63,6 58 0	21.3	36 0	16 15	9.0	a	ii 11 10	12 11 8	 9 13	11 8	8 73	N.W. s. W.
Kitty Hawk Wilmington Wake Forest	51.4	76,5	29	24.0	23	51.1	19.7	29.5 	1	8,2	27 	i3	iö 	s	10 11	6.75 4.74	s. w.
Average											-						

a, 5th, 7th and 26th.

## TEMPERATURE REPORT FOR APRIL, 1888.

				TE	МI	ERA	TUI	RЕ.				Ī	N	0,	Days.	nelu- r and s).	
STATIONS.	Mean monthly.	Highest.	Date.	Lowest	Date.	Range.	Mean dany range.	Greatest daily range.	Date.	Least daily	Date.	Clear,	Fair,	Cloudy.	On which rain fell, including hail, snow and sleet.	Total rain-fall, i ding hail, snow sleet, (In inche	Prevailing wind
Hatteras	57.3	74.8	29	41.6	13	33.8	14.2	24.3	9	6.0	2	19		2	- 6	.77	S.
Knoxvil e, Tenn	61.3	84.8	29	35.5	21	49.3	23.9	36.0	15	13.0	9	19	.7	4	9	4.00	N.
Charlotte	63.2	91.0	29	38,3	25	52.7	21.4	34.9		13.2		13	13	4	7	2.36	S. W.
Fort Macon									***			:::					
Lynchburg, Va	50.3	88.9	9	31.3	25	57.6	25.8	43.8	27	11.2	23	17	9	4	7	1.67	N.W.
Chapel Hill Kitty Haw.k		00.0		00.4				201.13			13		• • • •		12	4 17	
Wilmington	97.0	92.0	30	39.4	21	52.0	21.3	39.3	29	9.2	12	17		***	6	1.17	s. W.
Wake Forest	01.7	57.0	-51	37.3	20	90 2	20.8	32,2	29	12.2	10	19	9	0	0	1.10	D. W.
wake rorest									***								
Average																	

## TEMPERATURE REPORT FOR MAY, 1888.

				TEN	P	ERA	TUR	E.					N	) <b>.</b> ]	DAYS.	clud- and	
STATIONS.	Mean monthly.	Highest.	Date.	Lowest.	Date.	Range.	Mean daily 1ange,	Greatest daily range.	Date.	Least daily range.	Date.	Clear.	Fair.	Cloudy.	On which rain fell, including hail, snow and sleet.	Total rain-fall, in ing hall, snow sleet (in inches)	Prevailing wind.
Hatteras	67.7	76.6	30	48,8	3	27.8	10.8	18.7	4	4.2	11	6	16	9	11	7.27	S.
Knoxville, Tenn	66.7	87.0	27	36.0	15	51.0	18.8	32.0		7.0		6	12	13		6.30	S. W.
Charlotte	65.2	94 0	28	40.0	15	51.0	21.0	30,5	15	6.7	10		15	14			S. W.
Fort Macon																	
Lynchburg, Va Chapel Hill	64.0	89.5	28	41.2	3	48 3	18.1	29.8	6	8.0	25	3	11	17	19	5.75	N. E.
Kitty Hawk	68.6	93.3	28	46.0	22	52.3	19.5	37.9	i	7.6						5.80	
Wilmington	69.9	85.5	26	50.7	14	34.8	14.2	26.3	14	5.6	21	6	16	9	9	4.41	5. W.
Wake Forest																	
	_				_		_		-		-	-	_	-			
Average																	

# TEMPERATURE REPORT FOR JUNE, 1888.

				TEN	1P.	ERA	TUR	E.					No	), 1	DAYS.	clud- and	
STATIONS.	Mean monthly.	Highest.	Date.	Lowest.	Date.	Range.	Mean daily range.	Greatest daily range.	Date.	Least daily range.	Date.	Clear.	Falr,	Cloudy.	On which rain fell, including hail, snow and sleet.	Total rain-tail, in ing hall, snow sleet (in inches)	Prevailing wind.
TT-44	-0.1	0.0	100	50.0	1	21.0	0.0	10.5			Ī.	10			8	4.20	s. w.
Hatteras	79.9	05.0	10	19.7	9	45.9	9.6	20.0	111	9.1	а	19	13	4			S. W.
Knoxville, Tenn Charlotte	77 0	98.0	21	55.3	4	19.5	21.5	30.1		9.7		19	99	6	10	1.66	s. w.
Fort Macon	11.0	000		0,0	1	12.1	21.0	.,0.,1		0		ŭ				1.00	
Lynchburg, Va	74.1	96.5	21	49.7	4	46.8	21.7	33.7	5	9.2	27	>	16	6	5	2.24	N. E.
Chapel Hill			١														
Kitty Hawk	75.8	98.5	23	57.5	5	41.0	18.5	30,6	10	7.6	3					4.65	S. W.
Wilmington	75.8	93.8	26	52.8	4	41 0	16.9	26,0	7	10.3	b	10	13	7	10	3 56	s. w.
Wake Forest																	
A	-40	04.1	-	~ 4	-	1.01	10.0	- Jan 19	-	0.0	-	-	10	-	8	9.41	C1 517
Average	14.8	91.1		D#.	١	4.01	18 0	27.0	1	8.0		9	10	Đ	8	0.41	s. w.

# TEMPERATURE REPORT FOR JULY, 1888.

									_							1	
				TEN	1 P	ERA	TUR	E.				7	Νo	. 1	DAYS.	elud	
STATIONS.	Mean monthly.	Highest.	Date.	Lowest.	hate.	Range.	Mean daily range.	Greatest dally range.	Dave.	Least daily range,	Date.	Clear.	Fair.	Cloudy.	On which rain- fell, including hail, snow and sleet,	Total rain-fall, in ing hail, snow a sleet (in Inches).	Prevalling wind.
Hatteras	74.6	85.4	12	62.0	4	23.4	10.1	20.9		4.4					6	6.24	N. E.
Knoyville Tenn	75 6	93 0	7	60.4	14	32.6	20.2	25.1		7.7		14	14	3	9	3,45	E.
Charlotte	77.5	99.6	12	60.0	16	39.6	22.2	30.8	12	14.0	20	3	:5	13,	11	1.68	N. E.
Fort Macon						***						***					
Lynchburg, Va	73.4	95.0	7	55.4	15	39.6	22.5	30.5		9.8					11	2.59	*
Chapel Hill																	
Kitty Hawk	76.5	1002	10	59.3	4	40 9	13.8	30.8	13	8.3	22	:::			9	3.92	
Kitty Hawk Wilmington	75.9	95.9	12	59.8	3	36.1	17.1	25.4	12	5.5	29	11	11	9	11	5.87	E.
Wake Forest																	
			-		-				-		-	-					27 22
Average	75.7	94.8		59.5	1	35.4	17.6	27.2	***	8.3					9	3.96	N. E.
			-									-					

<sup>\*</sup>N. E. S. E.

### TEMPERATURE REPORT FOR AUGUST, 1888.

			_	TEM	P	ERA	rur	Е.					No	o. ]	DAYS.	clud- nd	
STATIONS.	Mean monthly.	Highest.	Date.	Lowest.	Date.	Range,	Mean daily range.	Greatest dally range.	Date.	Least daily range.	Date.	Clear.	Fair.	Cloudy.	On which rain fell, including hail, snow and eleet.	Total rain-fall, in ing hail, snow a sleet (in inches).	Prevailing wind.
Hatteras	77.4	87.8	9	66.2	24	25.6	8.8	:13.6	30	6.0	13	17	11	3	13	2.36	s.
Knoxville, Tenn																	
Charlotte																	
Fort Macon Lynchburg, Va					•••						•••		•••	•••			
Chapel Hill																	
Kitty Hawk																	
Wilmington	76.9	95 2	7	58.8	24	36.4	16.4	23.0	27	4.1	13	11	11	9	13	4.61	s.w.
Wake Forest														•••			
Average	75.5	90.1		60.4		30.2	10 0	19.4		5.0						3.40	s.

# TEMPERATURE REPORT FOR SEPTEMBER, 1888.

				TE:	n P	ERA	TUI	RE.					N	0. ]	DAYS,	nelu- nud',	Ī.
STATIONS.	Mean monthly.	Highest.	Date	Lowest.	Date,	Range.	Mean daily range.	Greatest daily range.	Date.	Least daily range.	l'ate.	Clear.	Eair.	Cloudy.	ton which rain fell, including hail, snow and sleet.	Total rain-fall, in ding hall, snow sleet (in inches	Prevailing wind.
Southport Hatteras Knoxville, Tenn Charlotte	72 6 64 3	33.8	14	50.2 35.0	30 30	33,6	17.0	29.0	12	3.0	 15	10 12	12	\$	14 13	6,63 6,55	S. E.
Lynchburg, Va Chapel Hill Kitty Hawk Wilmington,	71 6 71.1	97.0 87.5	1	38 9 43.9	30		17.1 14.9	27.1 24.4	30	8.1 4.8	25 25	6	8	16	16	9.40 8.28	
Average					_				_	-	_	_	_	_		7.28	

### TEMPERATURE REPORT FOR OCTOBER, 1888,

				TE	IP	ERA	ATUI	RE.		•	•		N	0.	DAYS.	nelu- rand ).	
STATIONS.	Mean monthly.	Ilighest.	Date,	Lowest.	Date.	Range.	Mean daily range.	Greatest daily range	Date	Least daily range,	Date.	Clear,	Fair,	Cloudy.	On which rath fell, including hail, snow and sleet.	Total rain-fall, in ding hall, snow sleet (in inches	Prevailing wind
Southport Hatteras Knoxville, Tenn,	60.8	76.0	11	18.2	22	27.8	10.3	.28	11	4.6	7	17	8		8	3,99	N.
Charlotte Lynchburg, Va																	
Chapel Hill Kitty Hawk																5.42	
Wilmington Wake Forest	59 7	79.2	6	44.7	18		16,5	25.7	19	6.8	25	13	7	11	13	5.65	
Average																4.78	

# TEMPERATURE REPORT FOR NOVEMBER, 1888.

				TEM	IP.	ERA	TUR	E.				1	Νo	. ]	DAYS.	eludand	
STATIONS.	Mean monthly.	Highest.	Date.	Lowest.	Date.	Range.	Mean daily range.	Greatest daily range.	Dale,	Least daily range.	Date	Clear.	Fair.	Cloudy.	On which rain fell, including hail, snow and sleet,	Total rain-fall, in ing hall, snow sleet (in inches.)	Prevailing wind,
Southport																	
Hatteras Knoxville, Tenn	56.8	74.2	2	37.7	26	36.5	кá	17.4	2	40:	20	12	6	12	12	5.52	N. E. N. E.
Charlotte																	
Lynchburg, Va Chapel Hill																	
Kitty Hawk Wilmington	57.9	79.5	5	31,3	20	45.2	15.8	31.0		5.2						3.16	
Wilmington Wake Forest	54.2	79.3	3	35.8	27	22.0	13 9	22.0		4.0		11	5	14	14	5,50	N. E.
			_		-	_		_	_		-		_	_			
Average	50.7	76,7		29.7		30,6	12.7	19.8		4.0						4.60	N. E

## TEMPERATURE REPORT FOR DECEMBER, 1888.

				TEM	P	ERA	TUR	E.				1	No	. 1	DAYS	and	
station≠.	Mean monthly.	Highest.	Date.	Lowest.	Date,	Range.	Mean daily range.	Greatest daily range.	Date.	Least daily range.	Date.	('lear.	Fair.	Cloudy.	On which rain fell, including hail, snow and sleet.	Total rain-fall, in ing hall, sno r sleet (in inches).	Prevailing wird.
Southport Hatteras Knoxville, Tenn Charlotte Lynchburg, Va	45.3 37.2 39.8	65.4 60.0 65.5	26 16 26	$28.3 \\ 22.0 \\ 20.2$	22 * 21	37 1 16.0 39.8	26.0	24.7	16 16	3.0	13	18	ä	111	8	5.81 1.90	N.W. N.W. N.E. N.W.
Chapel Hill	46.5 43.6	72.0 67.7	9 27	25 0 25.8	14	40.0	19 0	30,0	19	5.2 4 0	11	16	8	7	8 11	2.92	N.W. N.
Average	41.5	64.7		24.8		30.9	18.2	25.4		4.8						4.70	

<sup>\* 20</sup> and 21.

### TABLE SHOWING CONDITION OF JAILS FOR YEAR 1887, IN THE COUNTIES REPORTING TO THE STATE BOARD OF HEALTH.

	N	un	ab					soi rir		rs	co	n-	Av			意	
COUNTIES.	January.	February.	March.	April,		June.			er.	October.	November.	December.	Confin'd dur'ng the year.	Vaccinated.	Which can read	Cubic feet space lotted to each,	GENERAL REMARKS ON SANITARY CONDITION.
Alamance					-		4	3	4	6	4	6	4	2	2	742	
Alexander	10 13	4 12	 5  8	 7  6	 ō 6		3 5 18	5 13 4	10 10 5	 Iù		•••	2 6 6 5 13 4	0 1  7	1 5 7	1,491	Not good. Good. No report.
Cabarrus	8 1 10	10 2 12	3 1	1 16	1 18	1			4	3 1 7 5	9	 10 7	3 1 10 7	4 1 .: 3 5	5 1 2 42 3	1,256 1,555 9,450 2,854 585	Good. Good. Very good. No improvement. Good. Clean and properly
Cumberland, Davidsou Duplin Durham Edgecombe Forsyth	1 4 20	11 8	1 15 	5	6	6 18	1 7 13	29	16	17	2 3 17	2 11 2 5 20 16	5 8 8 17 19	2 0 0 5 4	3 0 0 12 35 4	1,835 588 1,115 440	disinfected. First-class order. Good. Good. Good. Not good.
Franklin	6 7 3  20	2 7 3 	7 16 3 4 25 15	7 12 6 4 0	3 0 2 7 0 19	6 2 9 36 30	10	4 0 2 14	5 3 8	8 9 4 0	9 4 4 8 22	1 5 6 15 	5 7 8 25 21	8 17 5 0 8 0	14 4 4 3 7	1,780 842 637 781	Very good. Very good. Fair.
Johnston	15 6 5 5	4 8 5 3	1 6 10 4	1 1 1 5	9 4 4 4 3	5 5 5	90643	6 4 5	16 4 4 6		10 6 5 2	34402	9 11 5 6 4	2 4 1 0 2 8	6 10 4 0 3	904 2,093 287 1,473 502	Very good indeed. Good. Good. About as usual. Good. Good.
McDowell Montgomery New Hanover Northampton Pender	5050	7 0 11 2	17 2	31 6	1 18 0	1 11 1	1 2 17 0	1 0 24 0 1	2 38 2 8	2 20 4 0	1 3 18 4	9 1 18 0	17 2 17 2 5	5 2	7 2 9 4	627 600 534	Good, Fair. Excellent, Good, Not yet completed. Not good.
Richmond Robesou Rowan Rutherford Sampson Stanly	15 12 6	5 -0	33	5	3 2	13 12 7	5	4 19 13 5	10 11 22 	7 19 15  7	11 0 13 7 2	12 10 14 4 2	8 12 10 15	3 1	2 5 3 1 2	694 1,235 856 1,220	Good, Fair, Pretty good, Very good condition Good,
ryrrell Fransylvania Jnion Vance	1 6	7	5	i ò	1 6	10	8 0 :72	1 0 2 15 2	25 4	2 1 3 4 3	1 4	3 3	2 4 2 1 2 9 3	1 2 0 2 2 2	2 4 1 2 1 2	559 1,100 1,368	Good.
Wake Warren Washington Watauga Wayne Yancev	8	0	3 4 3	0	0	7	5		4	- (	8: : 8	1	18 4 4 2 9	0 5	5	2,152 2,152 950 400	Needs a more unifon heat. Very good. Ordinary, Bad. No report.

TABLE.—Showing Condition of Jalis for the year 1888, in Counties Reporting to the State Board of Health.

	Genehal Remairs on Santtary Cordition— December 31, 1888,	(Gond.)  (Februilding the Jall,  Joseph Cond.  Very good.  Very good.  Very good.  Joseph Cond.  Jos
AVERAGE NUMBER	Cubic feet space al- lotted to each,	1,722 1,837 1,191 1,191 1,191 1,193
Z	Which read and write	20 1 0 22 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2
:AG	Vaccinat'd.	10
AVE	Confing the during the year.	20000 = -0021-401-002020202024x202024
	December.	anough   801   anough   ano
Ü	November.	2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3 3
URI	October.	-80+5 ISA 1-143 8-5 88-885-88 4
a a	September.	2000 2000 2000 2000 0000 7 450
INI	August.	84 8 83-81581 +84 8 8 11 F-12 +6
No. of Prisoners Confined during	July.	4-84-84-1481-81-818 528 52-8 XI
us (	June.	4-34 2-1 \$381-638 520852 551-6 81
ONE	May.	r
RIS	April.	rerecutation = = = = = = = = = = = = = = = = = = =
OF I	March,	P
No.	February.	2 0 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2
	January.	2 0 2 1 1 2 2 2 2 2 2 1 1 2 2 2 2 1 1 2
	Counties.	Alamanoe  Bannor  Bann

TABLE.—Showing Condition of Jails for the year 1888, &c,—(Continued.)

		GENERAL REMARKS ON SANJTARY CONDITION— December 31, 1888.	No effort at improvement,  (cond.  (dishipmed and prorty heated.  (dishipmed and prorty heated.  (dishipmed and prorty heated.  (cond.  (cond.  (cond.  (cond.  (cond.  (cond.  (cond.  (cond.  ) Nat good—no effort at improvement.  (cond.  (cond.  (cond.  (cond.  ) Nat good—no effort at improvement.  (cond.  (cond.  ) Nat good—no effort at improvement.  (cond.  (cond.  All right and well kept.  All right and well kept.  All right and yell.  (cond.  Excellent.  (cond.  Inferior.  (cond.  Inferior.  (cond.  Inferior.  (cond.  Inferior.  (cond.  Inferior.  (cond.  Inferior.  Inferior.  (cond.  Inferior.  (cond.  Inferior.  (cond.  Inferior.  (cond.  Inferior.  Inferior.  (cond.  Inferior.
	AVERAGE NUMBER	Cubic eet space allot- ted to each.	3.8.4. 2.8.3.5. 2.8.3.5. 5.80. 6.80. 6.
	E N	Which can read & write,	+- 21-9- <u>7</u> 21 21222 +0 21 , 7 21 2121
	2AG	Vaccinated	2
	AVE	Confing the during the	waaaaaaa - Xardinaaa xaardaaa xxxaaxxx
H		December.	Lw 7234-55x 2 2x5 2 2-x2-2-2
	S. C.	November.	201 4x 0 2 1 1 2 2 1 2 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
ı	URI	October.	4 201000 2 10 - 201 201 201 21 41
	G G	September.	x
	INE	August	∞ 10m -3 %-10 251 ±+m n ±50 10∞
	ONE	July,	1
	NO. OF PRISONERS CONFINED DURING	·əunf	+ + + + -
	ONE	May.	a- 2154-215
	PRIS	April.	x-
	OF	March.	3131 10-3130 B 1- 30 1030-0-1 1-12- 3010-
	No.	February.	103   1039   123   40   10   10   12   13   13   12   12   13   14   15   15   15   15   15   15   15
		January.	30 mm   -   -   -
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TABLE SHOWING CONDITION OF POOR-HOUSES FOR YEAR 1887, IN THE COUNTIES REPORTING TO STATE ROARD OF HEALTH.

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TABLE SHOWING CONDITION OF POOR-HOUSES, &c., FOR THE YEAR 1887—CONTINUED.

	General Remarks on Samitary Condition of Poor-House.	Excellent condition. Moderately good. Very good. Good condition. Very good indeed. Good. Frail and not large enough. Good. Sanitary condition good. Frail and well aired. Good. Unplastered. Nor saired for the purpose. Nor saired for the purpose. Fair. Prafty good condition. Frail. Fair. Pretty good condition. Frail. Good.
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Tyrrell	Wake	Warren	Washington	Watauga	Wavne

+Smallest space reported during the year is given. \*Including House of Correction.

TABLE SHOWING CONDITION OF POOR-HOUSES FOR THE YEAR 1888, IN THE COUNTIES REPORTING TO THE STATE BOARD OF HEALTH

H.		General Remarks on Sanitary Condition of the Buildings.	Good. Good.	Good.	Very good.	No report. Good.	Fair,	Gean and comfortable	Very good.	Good.	Good.	Very good condition.	Good.	10000	Good.	Good. Good.
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F F — C F	Large and arry. Well kept and in fine sanitary condition. Very comfortable.	As good as could be expected. Good condition and kept in good order.	Fairly good condition. Very good.	Good. Cannot afford protection against extreme	cold.	Good.	Good.	Good.	Good; exterior repairs about to be made.	Bad condition; defective privy arrangem'ts.	Building inferior.	Good.	Good.	Good condition, except cells for lunatics, which are too small and badly ventilated.	Good.	Good.	Well kept.	very good. Paupers kept by individuals.	[ ]	bacenent. Good order,
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TABLE SHOWING CONDITION OF POOR-HOUSES FOR THE YEAR 1888, &c.—Continued.

	General Remarks on Sanitary Condition of the Buildings.	Good.	Good.	Splendid condition.	Excellent.	Good.	Excellent.	Tolerably good.
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In private families.
No report.
Includes House of Correction.
No Pool House.

# REPORT ON THE SANITARY CONDITION OF THE WESTERN INSANE ASYLUM.

To the Board of Directors Western N. C. Insane Asylum, Morganton, N. C.:

Gentlemen:—The undersigned, members of a committee from the N. C. Board of Health, appointed by President Jones, at the request of the Superintendent to visit your institution, would respectfully report. We reached Morganton July 28th, and spent part of that day and of the next at the Asylum, considering the following subjects, upon which Dr. Murphy desired our opinion:

1st. The amount of water supply.

2d. The dietary list, the amount, quality and mode of preparation of the food furnished to the patients.

3d. The propriety of using the sewage of the institution on its garden.

4th. The difference between painted and unpainted walls, looked at from a sanitary point of view.

### 1. The Amount of Water Supply.

In regard to the facts, we were compelled to accept the statements of the Superintendent, but we have no hesitation in expressing our perfect confidence in their trustworthiness. We learned from him that the total amount of water delivered at the Asylum through the supply-pipe from the mountain in 24 hours, was about 275 gallons per patient, more than enough, but that owing to the fact that there was no provision for storing any part of it, for that purpose, only about half of it could be utilized, or so much of it as was delivered during the waking hours of the institution. In consequence, during certain hours of the morning, when the

draught upon the supply was greatest, the pressure was so much diminished that water could not be obtained above the second floor.

We regard water in the greatest abundance easily accessible at all points and at all hours as of the highest importance in the proper management of all hospitals, more especially those whose patients, on account of the nature of their complaints, are unusually filthy. We would, therefore, respectfully recommend that as soon as it can be arranged, storage for the water, at present running to waste, sufficient to keeping full pressure in the pipes at all times, be provided.

## 2. The Dietary List, &c.

We inspected the list, catechised the Steward on the subject, visited the kitchen, examined the dinner, the cooking, and talked with the housekeeper. In our opinion, the diet is sufficiently varied, excellent in quality, well prepared, and so far as we could judge (without a residence in the institution for a considerable time), ample in quantity.

# 3. The Propriety of using the Sewage on the Garden.

We think it inadvisable. Dr. C. W. Chancellor, "Secretary of the Maryland Board of Health," in his admirable report on Improved Methods of Sewage Disposal, &c., 1887, says: "The saturation of the soil in or near a town, by crude sewage matters, is a constant concomitant of epidemic diseases; while a proportionate exemption from such maladies has followed the removal of this source of arial pollution."

\* "The sewage, cleared of its solid matter by deodorizing and precipitating agents, may be used for fertilizing purposes, but even this purified liquid, if allowed to stagnate in large quantities on the surface, would, as in common

irrigation, be likely to engender disease." Another reason against such an application of the sewage, which occurs to us, is that the appetites of nearly all invalids, more especially the insane, to whom the digestion and assimilation of a sufficiency of good food is of peculiar importance, is notoriously capricious and uncertain, and should it come to the knowledge of your patients, as it would of course, that their vegetables were largely the product of their own excrement, their appetites would be still more impaired. Finally, owing to its very great dilution, its profitable use would be exceedingly problematical.

# 4. The Hygienic difference between Painted and Unpainted Walls.

It is always desirable that hospital walls, or those of any apartment habitually occupied by sick people, should be of such a character as to absorb as little as possible of the effluvia constantly emanating from the patient. As painted walls have less power of absorption than hard finished, we think them preferable; but we can see no necessity for painting the walls of the Asylum, which are unusually good at present, though we would recommend that paint be applied when they need overhauling.

In conclusion, we desire to express our appreciation of the kindness and hospitality of Superintendent Murphy.

RICHARD H. LEWIS, M. D. HENRY T. BAHNSON, M. D.

# REPORT ON THE SANITARY CONDITION OF THE EASTERN N. C. INSANE ASYLUM,

BY DR. J. H. TUCKER, AND J. L. LUDLOW, C. E., M. S., COM-MITTEE APPOINTED BY THE NORTH CAROLINA BOARD OF HEALTH AT THE INVITATION OF THE EASTERN ASYLUM FOR THE INSANE.

RALEIGH, N. C., July 21, 1888.

To the Superintendent and Board of Directors, Eastern Insane Asylum:

Gentlemen:—In accordance with your invitation, and under instructions from the office of the Secretary of the State Board of Health, we would respectfully state, that on the 27th of June we made a careful sanitary inspection of the Institution over which you preside, and beg to submit herewith the following report:

We note with pleasure the present excellent health of the Asylum, and its exemption from epidemic diseases of all kinds for the past twelve months. When it is remembered that dysentery and diarrhea have prevailed in epidemic forms throughout Eastern Carolina, and to some extent in the immediate vicinity of the Asylum, we are obliged to believe that the immunity enjoyed is the result of constant, vigilant and intelligent enforcement of the sanitary rules and regulations which seem to prevail in every department of this Institution.

The wards, dormitories, mess-halls, closets and pantries were found in good order and scrupulously clean, everywhere showing the effects of soap and water properly and vigorously applied. The air space in the dormitories is abundant (750 cubic feet space per capita being the allowance),

and, with the exception noted under the head of ventilation there was an absence of all unpleasant and disagreeable odors. The beds, bedding, sheets and coverlets were neat, tidy and admirably adapted to the purpose for which they are designed.

The grounds and yards are in a good sanitary condition. The superficial drains are all open, no accumulation of garbage, no standing water, and the entire premises showed evidences of constant and systematic attention.

The patients were neatly and comfortably clad, and their appearance indicated clearly that all proper rules of personal hygiene were rigidly enforced. While it does not come properly within the scope of this report, we cannot forbear to say, that the health authorities of the State can render these poor, unfortunate people no greater service than to strongly impress upon the county authorities the importance of early hospital treatment for the insane. These people, especially, come from the poor and more dependent of our inhabitants; they are found in their own homes in conditions of utter destitution, often suffering for the bare necessities of life; or else they are found in work-houses, poor-houses or jails, without treatment of any kind, and are physical as well as mental wrecks.

It is confidently believed that earlier recognition of insanity, with prompter efforts at treatment, will enable this Institution to show a greatly diminished death rate and a much more gratifying percentage of recoveries. We would respectfully commend this matter to the serious consideration of all persons who are in any way connected with the management and care of the insane throughout the State.

The kitchen was found in fairly good condition, the utensils were in good order and clean, but showed evidences of wear. The range is also much worn and is too small to meet the requirements of an Institution of this size. We recommend its condemnation, and the substitution of one of larger capacity and more approved pattern. To this

should be added two or three large boilers of sufficient size to supply the Institution with soups and stews.

We were permitted to examine the bread (both corn and wheat), which was found to be of excellent quality, wholesome and palatable; indeed, the entire dietary, so far as we were advised, is sufficient in quality, quantity and variety, to meet all the requirements of health.

The ice supply seemed inadequate for the needs of the Institution, and there was no provision for preserving fresh meats, vegetables, fruits, butter and milk in warm weather. Both from an economic and health stand point, we would suggest the addition of a large refrigerator, with a sufficient number of compartments to meet these important ends. The cost of such an apparatus, when measured by the convenience and comfort afforded, would be trifling.

# WATER SUPPLY

The water supply of the Institution is from two sources, and obtained by two distinct systems. One supply is for drinking and culinary purposes; the other for general use and drainage purposes.

The supply for drinking and culinary use is rain water gathered from the roof and stored in cisterns. Such a supply is quite desirable and affords a very excellent quality of water—provided some precautions are taken in collecting it. This water should be collected and stored during the winter or rainy seasons. At various times during the year, the atmosphere is loaded with various impurities, which could not be safely introduced into our drinking water. During the summer or any dry period, the air may, and usually does, become very heavily laden with such impurities, from particles carried in dust from the streets and roads, from the gases of manufactories, from decomposition of various vegetable and animal substances and other sources. At such times the atmosphere may become contaminated to

such an extent, that an ordinary, or at times an extraordinary, rain would not sufficiently purify the air to pass any portion of the rain water without its absorbing more or less of its impurities. Further demonstration is not necessary to show that it would be injudicious to collect rain water at such times for drinking or culinary purposes.

In the autumn season also, when so much of nature is in a state of death and decay, great care and limitation should be placed upon the collection and use of rain water.

During the winter and spring when rains are much more frequent and copious, the atmosphere is little likely to become dangerously contaminated. It is then in its most pure condition, and there is little danger of collecting evil impurities with rain water stored at such times, hence these are the seasons when these supplies should be obtained. Before storing rain water at this time, however, one precaution is quite necessary, the rain should be allowed to continue for a few moments to wash the roof of all substances which might be collected and deposited there before the water is turned into the cistern. It gives us pleasure to state that we were informed by the authorities that these observations have been and are largely practiced, and we therefore feel assured that the supply is a very wholesome one. A further and very desirable purification they also obtain by passing the water from the storage tanks through a charcoal filter before it is used.

The water which is used for general purposes and drainage, is pumped from the river flowing near by to elevated tanks, giving a sufficient head to distribute the water throughout the institution. Hose connections are maintained with these tanks for use in case of fire. This supply is seemingly adequate for all demands and is of very fair quality.

# DRAINAGE.

The drainage system we do not find in such favorable condition as the water supply. In its design and construction various errors have been made, the results of which might reasonably be expected to prove serious. While the evils which will be mentioned have not as yet apparently caused any serious results, as far as we could learn, yet they are disease tempters, and should be remedied at once, ere the good record of the drainage system be completely destroyed.

The house drains of the sewerage system are located in ditches or tunnels excavated beneath the building. These tunnels are at right angles to each other, one extending the entire length of the building, the other intersecting this from one side. They are provided and used for carrying all the service pipe of the building to the various distributions. The ventilation of these tunnels is very defective, and will be discussed more fully under the general head of ventilation.

The sewer pipes in these tunnels are buried to a slight depth and located so that iron soil pipe extensions are made from these to serve the closets in the various wards in the institution. These iron soil pipes are of proper size and extend to the roof of the building; on each floor, pan closets are connected with them, as well as bath tubs and wash bowls; kitchen and pantry sinks are also connected with these pipes. These service connectious are in many cases in very bad condition; some are not trapped at all, and others very imperfectly trapped. All these connections should have a thorough remodeling and be put in perfect condition, as well as be provided with ventilating facilities, which will be further spoken of in what follows.

The iron soil pipes from the bath rooms, closets, &c., are carried to a terra cotta pipe in the tunnel, spoken of above

this pipe continues to the outside of the building. From this point to the outfall at the river bank, there is a fourteen inch sewer pipe; at the outfall, provisions for carrying off the sewage rapidly had been neglected, but upon our recommendation, the Superintendent gave orders to have it remedied immediately.

The pipes are too large for the service required, and the system as a whole has very inadequate and imperfect ventilation, the evil effects of which itself is further aggravated by the excessive size of pipes.

Earthenware pipes should never be used in the construction of soil pipe in any drainage system, and in the case of these tunnels, though these pipes are buried, there is yet a possibility, and, indeed, a great probability, of sewer gas escaping from imperfectly made joints, and forcing its way through the slight covering of earth over them; such a case would be very much aggravated here on account of the slight air space in the tunnels and their imperfect ventilation: that there was such escaping sewer gas was too evident at the time of our visit by the odor of the air in the tunnels and in the corridor of the first floor above. These earthenware pipes beneath the building should at once be replaced by cast iron pipes, with carefully made lead joints, and frequently tested for leaks and imperfections. This is especially necessary when it is considered that the air from these tunnels is directly communicated to the wards and corridors of the building under the existing state of affairs; recommendations regarding the change of this will follow in this report.

The sewer from the building to the river is unnecessarily large, but it will not deserve serious criticism if frequently and copiously flushed, and the following provisions for ventilation are put in effect:

Thorough ventilation of the system should be provided, first, by constructing at least three (more would be better) ventilating shafts along the sewer from the building to the

outfall, one of which should be placed near the outfall, one about midway to the building, and one near the building where the fourteen-inch sewer begins. The first two may be simply a piece of pipe or brick chamber extended from the pipe to the surface or high water mark, and provided with open covers.

The ventilator near the building should be a brick and cemented chamber, with bottom concentric with the outflowing pipe. All soil pipes and waste pipes should be led to this chamber. It should be of itself sealed from the external air, except by a ventilating pipe of three-inch cast iron, which should be carried from the chamber to a few feet above the top of the building, remote from any window or chimney. All inflowing pipes of this chamber should be provided with a running trap, ventilated on house side to ventilating pipe, just before entering the chamber. This will provide for good ventilation of the sewer itself and prevent any gases which may accumulate therein from entering the pipes within the building.

For the ventilation of the soil pipes, further provision is also necessary. The soil pipes, extending as they do to the roof of the building, will, in some circumstances, serve as ventilators, as they were evidently designed to serve, but when they are filled with water in an upper story, ventilation is completely cut off for all floors below, and the solid column of water rushing down the pipe tends to force the traps on the lower floors, if not otherwise ventilated, rather than to permit the pipe to serve as a ventilator. It is during a rain, however, that the existing arrangement displays its weakness and inadequacy. At such a time when rain from the roof is running down the soil pipes, as we were informed it usually does, the air and gases in the pipes are under the greatest compression, hence the greatest need for an opportunity of its escape. But just at this time, the pipe is running full of water and there is no avenue of escape, except to force the weaker trap or traps along its path. In brief, at the time ventilation is most needed, it is the least provided. To remedy this, there should be a two-inch cast iron pipe extended along but independent of the soil pipe to a few feet above the roof, this to serve as a ventilating pipe only, and all traps and connections should be ventilated through this pipe.

The pan closets in use are probably as good provision as can be made for people of this class, but their frequent flushing should never be neglected. In connection with these closets however, we found a great evil to exist in the floors of the rooms in which the closets, wash sinks, bath tubs, etc., are located. With this class of people especially, it is emphatically necessary that the floors should be made of some non-absorbing material, such as slate or tiles, as wood floors are apt to occasion much evil by absorbing various impurities consequent upon such places.

#### HEATING.

The building is heated by steam radiators distributed about the various corridors. While we do not approve of this method, it is yet one of the standard methods of heating, and we would reserve comment, except to say that we deem it urgently desirable that the steam conducting pipes which are suspended in the tunnels should be wrapped or covered, as very much heat is lost and unnecessary fuel consumed on account of the exposed portion of the pipes.

In suggesting the improvement of the heating system, we must preface our recommendations by observing that the present method serves only to heat and reheat and keep heated the same air, after being breathed and fouled and breathed over and over again, until it is laden with an enormous and extremely dangerous excess of carbonic acid gas; we cannot see how it can be otherwise in the cold season, when we were informed by the authorities that it is next to impossible to keep any windows open on account of

the inclinations of the patients to keep off every encroachment of cold air and the existing ventilation being insufficient to overcome this difficulty.

Our recommendation for the improvement of the heating method is that in addition to the existing steam system, a heated air system be adopted. Detail plans for such a system would embody, provision for drawing air from the external atmosphere remote from any possible contamination, heating this air by passing it through a suitable furnace, conducting it throughout the building by the existing flues and such other ducts as might be required, and finally, when this air has served its mission by warming and being breathed, that it be conducted by other flues to the top of the building and returned again to the external atmosphere at such a point or points that it will not again be returned to the furnace. This system would serve the double purpose of supplying fresh air as well as heat. The two systems could be operated in harmony after a little experimenting to determine the relative amounts of heat to be supplied by the hot air furnace and the steam boilers in order to furnish sufficient heat and pure air to the inmates of the Institution. The adoption of these plans would very greatly simplify and aid materially in the adoption of the recommendations under the following subject of ventilation.

## VENTILATION.

The ventilation of the Institution is defective and to be condemned. It consists of a system of flues extending from the tunnels before spoken of to the attic of the building, with openings to the different wards and corridors along their course, and terminating in the attic instead of directly into the external air. The air of this attic is drawn out by ventilators above the roof. The fresh air supply is taken from the tunnels; these are insufficiently supplied from the external air by the openings at the ends and by several

small openings beneath the floor at the top of the tunnel. As stated before, the air of these tunnels is very foul and very unfit to be supplied to the building for fresh air, the case is quite similar to ventilating a dwelling house by taking the fresh air supply from the cellar, which is severely to be condemned.

To improve the ventilation, we recommend the following The air in the tunnels beneath the building should first be purified by furnishing a greater supply from the outside, and by replacing the terra cotta house drains by cast iron of sufficient weight and strength to admit of caulking the lead joints, so as to make them water and gas tight. The fresh air supply for the wards and corridors, should be obtained directly from the external atmosphere by some standard approved method, and the supply should be so adequate that it can at all times be mechanically regulated to suit the requirements for proper displacement. This air should be supplied directly to the inmates by one system of flues and carried away by flues entirely separate from these. The location of the openings to and from the flues would somewhat depend upon the system of heating which may be applied; with the present system of heating, however, and the problem simply one of supplying fresh air, we would recommend that the supply flue openings be placed near the ceiling, and the exhaust flues near the floor: this would give a desirable circulation to the air and more completely carry off the impurities or vitiated air, which, being heavier than the pure air, would be more generally collected near the floor.

In closing, we would state that some of the criticism may seem unjustly severe, and, in mitigation, we would also state that in this report we have not considered how other similar Institutions may be, but how this and all others should be, from a purely sanitary stand-point.

# CONCLUSION.

In conclusion, we beg to make due acknowledgment to the Superintendent and his staff for the valuable aid rendered in making the survey, and to return our thanks for the hospitality extended to us during our stay at the Asylum.

Very respectfully,

Your obedient servants,

J. H. TUCKER, M. D.,

J. L. LUDLOW, C. E.

# APPENDIX.



# APPENDIX.

# PRELIMINARY ENQUIRY INTO THE CAUSES OF DEATH IN NORTH CAROLINA, AND SOME SUGGESTIONS ABOUT THE FUTURE OF PREVENTION.

BY THOMAS F. WOOD, M. D.

Sanitary reformation, to be permanent, must be founded upon the conviction of insanitariness, and to convince a community of insanitary conditions we must have the figures and facts which have been carefully and honestly collected, intelligently recorded, digested, and interpreted. So then, we, at the very outset, meet with the difficulty, as regards our State at large, of a lack of sufficient information of vital statistics to make any but preliminary—but, we trust, practical—deductions.

Few towns in the State have kept records of death until since the State Board of Health was organized, with the exception of Wilmington; and death certificates were made compulsory there in 1873—since then Charlotte, Asheville, Durham, Fayetteville, New Berne, Raleigh, Goldsboro, Henderson, Oxford, Washington and Tarboro.

These towns have made their work regularly, and, I believe, conscientiously.

The county reports are deficient, and necessarily so, as the Superintendent of Health, who is required to collect certain items relating to disease and death, must rely upon the reports sent to him, and in very few counties have physicians been able to view the matter of reporting to the Superintendent of Health as of sufficient moment to take the small trouble necessary.

More education of the public, more harmony among the profession, and money to pay for the work, will one day bring about a system of vital statistics such as that of New Jersey, Michigan, Rhode Island, and other States. Although county reports are not founded on knowledge of actual numbers of deaths, still every Superintendent has means of knowing when any of the diseases dangerous to the public health exist, and, in general terms, to what extent. A few reports are mere perfunctory dashes of the pen, bearing upon their face, in the manner of chirography, a hurried guess of the state of things. In the main, though, one can get a pretty fair knowledge of the nature of diseases prevalent in the State by such information as we now possess.

For convenience, let us divide the State into natural sections-after the

plan marked out by Dr. M. A. Curtis, the late distinguished botanist of our State, in his\* "Woody Plants of North Carolina"—into Lower, Middle, and Upper:

"A line drawn from Blakly, on the Roanoke, in the direction of Cheraw, on the Pee Dee, will nearly indicate the western termination of the Lower district, although the actual boundary limit between these two is as irregular as a line of sea-coast, which, very probably, this once was."

"The Middle district reaches westward to the base of the Blue Ridge," and the Upper district all west of, and including, the Blue Ridge mountains. The Eastern section is distinguished as the region of the long-leaf pine; the Middle section as that of the oaks, and the Western, a flora, varying with every hundred feet of elevation, including firs and ferns and mosses and lichens. The difference of elevation between the mountains and the sea-coast, according to Dr. Curtis, "occasions a difference of vegetation equal to ten or twelve degrees of latitude." The influence of these divisions, making a varied topography, is easier to study than the habits of life of individuals, or farmers, or hamlets, villages and larger towns.

The study of all these influences on the career of a life must be left to the future, and will not be complete until after studying the drainage, ventilation, heating and water-supply, habits of cookery, indulgence in stimulants and tobacco, and the methods of labor and intervals of recreation, are patiently considered.

The population of this State is remarkable in many respects. The white population, now a homogenous whole, has not been varied by the influx of foreign inhabitants since the ante-revolutionary period (1775), the foreign population being about 5,000, according to the census of 1880, which is smaller than that of any State in the Union, except Florida. While large numbers of our population have emigrated to Southern States, the bulk of the population have little of that restless desire to go prospecting in the outside world, which marks the Northern and Western people. When the war broke out the bulk of our adult population in the army saw more of the outside world in their marches with the Army of Northern Virginia than they had ever seen before, and most of them, when they reached Carlisle, in Pennsylvania, were farther away from home than they had ever been before, or since. Unlike other States, we have no large city where the bulk of the population visit on business or pleasure, all their patronage being bestowed on the nearest village to them; no metropolitan ideas of fashion or manner of living enter into their daily life. The greatest change is in the manner of life of the negro. Emancipation virtually emptied a foreign population tino our towns; for the negro, cared for in the cabins of the master under

<sup>\*</sup>Geological and Natural Survey of North Carolina: Part III.—Botany, &c. By Rev. M. A. Curtis, D. D.

rules of strict personal government, could be commanded to do for his well-being, while the emancipated negro considered that a home apart from the whites was the essence of personal and political freedom-to live in squalor, packed in small windowless rooms, to a degree that would nauseate a white man, and drive sleep away effectually, in a condition of perfect comfort; in sickness, trusting to any chance remedy brought to him, regarding his disease as matter of little concern to himself, but as a matter demanding service from the former white master or his present white employer-so firmly had this taken possession of his being while a slave. Personal cleanliness was utterly neglected, except as to the face and hands, and change of raiment; confined, in most cases, to the putting on of fine cast-off toggery for Sunday; rushing into contageous diseases with stolid indifference, and herding with each other during epidemics with helpless fatality. Small-pox is a disease which vaccination causes, in their belief, because they know that the white people vaccinate during the prevalence of small-pox, their blind deduction being that it was the cause. Syphilis, which was rare among negroes as slaves, became the most common of diseases. Promiscuous herding of the sexes spreads the disease with fearful rapidity. A negro man, applying for treatment for chancre, only desires (and he has not improved any to this day) to be relieved of the discomfort and inconvenience of the local sore, regarding it only as a barrier to further indulgence. In all essential respects, therefore, the negroes were, and are, a foreign population, below the people of any nation in decent instincts, and elevated from the condition of native Africans by the contact with the whites, entirely at the expense of the latter, and as burdensome, in many respects, as the old man of the sea was to Sinbad; the most patient and valuable of all laborers in a hot climate; the most tractable and easily influenced for good when segregated among the whites, but when herding among themselves, with no light but that of their own leaders. drifting always away from the good. A town, therefore, which has twenty thousand inhabitants, more than half of which are negroes, represents a lack of thrift and a lack of hygienic surroundings that really discounts the white population. In speaking of a town of this sort, as compared with one wholly of whites, numerical estimates are entirely misleading. These observations are preliminary to what we have to say of the prevalence of diseases by sections.

In general terms, we can say that malarial fever—that is, the paludal, or swamp fevers—abound in the Eastern sections, or region of the long-leaf pine—that is, less abundant in the Middle sections, finding its greatest intensity along the river and creek bottoms to the foot of the mountains, and that in the mountains malarial fever is not common. Almost the reverse of this applies to typhoid fever. Taking into account the difference in the density of the population—it being sparse in the mountain region, leaving out such centres as Asheville, and denser in the East,

except on the immediate coast-line—typhoid fever not only finds its highest intensity in the mountain regions as to numbers, but also as to the essential violence of the disease. In the West we have a type of fever that is generally regarded as contagious by the people, as well as by the doctor; in the East not regarded as contagious in any degree. In the West typhoid is the fever, in the common parlance of the people; in the East, the fever is bilious intermittent or remittent, and in the East—certainly I can speak of Wilmington—typhoid is the fever of acclimation of the young German population.

Pneumonia is general, but more marked in the Middle and Western sections.

Dipththeria is all-but universal, but, like typhoid fever, abounds most in the Middle and Western sections. According to the digest of the Tenth Census, as represented, after the graphic method by Dr. Billings, we give the following: In the East the deaths from dipththeria, as compared with the total deaths from all causes, was under twenty per thousand, while in the Middle and West, 40 to 59 per thousand.

Croup is also given, upon the same authority, in the East, under twenty per thousand; Middle, 20 to 29 per thousand; West, 60 and over per thousand.

Diphtheria, by groups of counties, may be best understood by the following:

Group composed of Guilford, Randolph, Chatham and Harnett, 100 and over per thousand.

Group composed of Pitt and Greene, respectively, 60 to 79 per thousand, and 80 to 90 per thousand.

Group composed of Lincoln, Gaston and Burke, respectively, 100 and over for the former, and for the latter 80 to 99.

Group composed of Cumberland and Moore, 40 to 59 per thousand.

Group composed of Surry, Stokes, Yadkin and Forsyth, 80 to 99 per thousand.

Group composed of Cherokee, Clay, Graham, Macon, Watauga, Jackson, Swain. Transylvania, Henderson, Buncombe, Madison, Mitchell, Yancy, Caldwell, Alexander, Catawba, Iredell, Rowan, Mecklenburg, Stanly, Anson, Montgomery, Richmond, Robeson, Bladen, Sampson, Duplin, Pender, Onslow, Jones and New Hanover, in some degree contiguous and representing largely a lower tier of counties, had a mortality of 20 to 39 per thousand.

Single counties—Davie. Catawba, and Union—and a group composed of Granville, Franklin, Nash, Wilson, Edgecombe, Johnston, Halifax, Martin, Bertie, Beaufort, Lenoir and Craven, under 20 per thousand.

In these last-named counties occurred the minimum of diphtheria deaths. It will be observed that deaths from croup bore the same ratio to deaths from all causes, as in the case of diphtheria.

Searlet Fever was not reported in any part of the State, and in the

last decade the cases which have occurred in 1885, 1886, 1887 and 1888, were mostly reported in Wilmington.

Enteric Fever.—In the East, 35 to 44 per thousand; 45 to 54 per thousand in the West.

Malarial Fever.—In the East, 50 to 69 per thousand; 30 to 49 per thousand in the West.

Consumption.—In the East deaths are 75 to 99 per thousand; in the West, under 75 per thousand.

Heart-Disease and Dropsy.—Seventy and over in the East and West, and in the Middle 60 to 69 per thousand.

Diarrheea Diseases.—Twenty to 39 per thousand in the East; 40 to 59 per thousand in the Middle; 60 to 79 per thousand in the West.

The Birth-Rate per thousand living in all sections is the same—30 to 59 per thousand—and corresponding with Virginia, Tennessee and South Carolina. The birth-rate per one thousand women, between 15 and 50 years of age, is 150 to 169, which corresponds with the States above named.

Deaths in Child-Birth.—In the East and Middle the deaths in child-birth are 15 to 19 per thousand, and under 10 per thousand in the West. Still-Born.—As compared with total from known causes, in East, 15 to 19 per thousand; West and Middle, 25 to 30 per thousand.

Cancer.—In the East and Middle, 10 to 15 per thousand; in the West, 15 to 20; and this item of the causes of deaths sinks into insignificance as compared with the New England States.

Old Age.—Distribution, as compared with total deaths from known causes: In the East, under 10 per thousand; in the Middle, 10 to 14 per thousand; in the West. 15 to 19 per thousand.

It would be useless to attempt to generalize upon the summary above given, as the record is not full, and the reports made were not always intelligently done, but the general drift of diseases can be observed more intelligently with the data in view.

The record of consumption by towns we can give for nine months only. Nine towns gave in nine months the relative mortality from consumption, 40 whites to 81 blacks.

By months: In May the highest mortality attained among the blacks was 16; highest among the whites in November, 8; blacks 13; December, 6 whites, 6 blacks; October, 4 whites, 10 blacks; June, 5 whites, 6 blacks; May, 3 whites, 16 blacks; July, 6 whites, 2 blacks; April, 2 whites, 10 blacks; August, 3 whites, 6 blacks; September, 3 whites, 8 blacks.

The study of the movement of our population, the conditions of life, and the causes of death, will, for all future time, be the important directions in which the energies of our work must be urged. The difficulties are great, because very few students are to be found capable for the work, and no considerable impression has been made upon

the people—certainly not upon the law-makers—as to the utility of it. This need in no way discourage us, for the road to success has been marked out by Chadwick in England, and all the followers of his lead in this country, and we must come to it, sooner or later. True education advances slowly, especially in our State, whose population is largely rural, and whose needs are far different from those denser communities where chiefly hygienic problems have been worked out at great cost. Thus, progress of time is bringing us face to face with some of the problems which have already been solved in older and denser communities, and at first thought we might believe that we would stand ready to adopt, with intense painstaking, the principles established by this well-earned experience. The signs of the times do not bear out this belief.

We observe in our towns that persons are trying the experiments with cess-pools, as though not a word of warning had ever been sounded on this subject. Persons building a new house, desirous of combining all the conveniences compactly to meet the requirements of our poor domestic service, eatch at the idea of water-closets in the house, imitating the suggestion which has come to them in their travels, or being seduced by the ill-advice of some unwise architect or energetic plumber, never stopping to enquire how sewage is to be disposed of, finally accepting a veritable death-trap in a cess-pool. If this is bad in a country where they have freezing weather for three months in the year, what must it be where the temperature of river water goes up in the 80's, as in Wilmington, during July and August?

Hardly less fatal is the error of haphazard sewerage, which is undertaken in some of our towns. A town gets a water-supply; bath-rooms and water-closets multiply, and properly enough sewer pipes are laid to carry off the waste water and sewage. The sewer is undertaken by a few neighbors, the pipes are laid without ascertaining the correct levels. the pipes become choked, and the householder finds to his sorrow that he has got as good as a cess-pool at the end of his pipes, and then begins a series of expedients to obviate the difficulty, ending, if the householder be a man of common sense, in cutting off the abomination and returning to the primitive method of an old-fashioned privy out of doors. Rather than have a water-closet, with a cess-pool of faulty sewer as its receptacle, it would be better to do as they do in one of the mountain counties. where an old guide, well known in the Canev region, says that a privy. recently erected by Col. M., is the only one known to exist in that region. and there are no water-closets there either. These fatal mistakes are fast increasing in the State, and are far more serious than this sketch makes them.

This water-supply is fraught with many evils. Singularly enough, as I have many times pointed out, the necessity for a public water-supply does not come from the promptings of the reeds of citizens, but from the trade pressure from without. It usually originates after some dis-

astrous fire, in the high rate of insurance, caused by the lack of sufficient water. Having entered this wedge, the convenience of a tap in the kitchen and house, wherefrom water can be drawn at will, the convenience and luxury of baths, and the great cleanliness and niceness of water-closets, are argued, until the plain, old-fashioned folks, to whom all such things are novelties, are found to fall in with the suggestion, which, if traced to its origin, came from the numerous speculators who are engaged in the manufacture of material used in the construction of such works, generally known as "Pipe Trusts."

The original idea of having a public water-supply, which has by this time taken full possession of a steady-going, old-fashioned town, has been turned into the best use that the various contractors can make of it, and the innocent public stand off to see a warm encounter between committees of Aldermen and rival supply companies, resulting finally in the victory of the sharpest contractor; and then what? Why, the source of water-supply is to be decided by a partisan encounter, regardless of scientific investigation, or experience as to quality and quantity, and, it may be, the final selection of a water so doubtful that nothing better can be devised for it than to filter it.

It is not worth while to multiply the dangers which beset us—enough of them are actually upon us to test the manner and spirit in which other questions will be met. So far, we are deliberately repeating the early errors of the past century, which can only be accounted for by the inference that our people are not informed.

Just let us see how we are going to fare in the next ten years. All these towns, getting a supply of water, will have, after disastrous losses of life and health, a system of sewage. Then will come into our towns swarms of tramp plumbers, who are driven out of the cities where license laws are in vogue, and the work done in our houses will be shabby, expensive, and exasperating. After suffering innumerable ills, patiently, as our Southern people have by long hardships learned to endure, the public will wake up to the facts in the case. This is no sensational picture, and, indeed, is but half drawn.

Is it not clear, then, that the whole population is interested in the future of sanitary work in our State? It is not the physicians alone who are to inform themselves and take active measures for the mitigation of disease, the prolongation of life, and the comforts of our surroundings, but every man, woman and child has some interest at stake. It must be almost of necessity that the doctors will take the lead in public and private sanitary matters, because, by their education, they are generally better fitted to advise, but it is just as great folly to leave it all for them to do as it would be for an intelligent community to entrust its religious duties to their pastors, ministers, or priests. It is a common cause, and involves principles of self-protection—so much so that when

one family neglects its hygienic duties, the errors do not fall alone upon the transgressors, but just as likely upon their unoffending neighbors.

It is proper, therefore, that efforts should be made to teach the principles of hygienics in our schools—not so much by text-books as orally, by the teachers who have studied and digested thorough systems of hygienics.

There is no time in our short public-school terms to take up a thoroughly good book, such as that by Dr. Ezra M. Hunt on "The Elements of Hygienics." so that the duty devolves upon the conscientious teacher to make his or her preparations to intersperse a lecture on hygienics into the monotonous curriculum. If these lectures do not degenerate into ill-judged temperance lectures, to the exclusion of sound doctrines on other points, it will be fruitful for good with some, at least, of the rising generation.

In conclusion, I would say that the future of preventive medicine or hygienics depends upon the education of the masses. If our mayors, for instance, happen to have no standard of cleanliness, and having only the example of their own town to measure their degree of sanitary duty by, and the masses of the people have no idea of hygienics, and have no good standard of cleanliness, there will be repeated, from century to century, the average condition of insanitariness so often seen in our towns—public places carefully policed, but the neighborhood of petty tax-payers on the suburbs made a dumping-ground for the garbage removed from these public places. How are these reforms to be complete?

I think we can foresee, in the not very distant future, the adoption of garbage furnaces. The people are going out in the world more and bringing back home ideas and impressions which they have gained by seeing the condition of other cities, and it will not be many years before they will demand more orderly streets, the destruction of garbage by burning, and the proper construction of sewerage, and the public functionary who is willing to go along repeating the errors of these hundred years past will be supplanted by more intelligent and progressive officers.

We must insist that public hygienics belongs to the people, and those of us who know the principles must make it our duty to impart them, and I can assure any\*one, be he citizen or citizen doctor, that the State Board of Health stands ready to aid any effort, however humble, to improve the sanitary condition of the people.

# THE CONTAMINATION OF FOODS WITH METALLIC POISONS.

# By F. P. Venable, Ph. D., F. C. S., Chapel Hill, N. C.

[Read before the Medical Society of the State of North Carolina, at Fayetteville, May 8, 1888.]

The purity and healthfulness of the food we eat is manifestly a question of paramount importance, vet comparatively little attention is paid to it. Liquid and solid foods are swallowed with a blind ignorance of, or a supreme indifference to, what they may contain. Unless the contamination is sufficient to make itself sensible to sight or smell or taste. we are apt to neglect it, forgetful how small an amount of some poisons can cause serious, if not fatal, results. Occasionally a newspaper account of some adulteration startles us from our equanamity, but the effect is not lasting, and we soon subside into our original condition of faith or recklessness.

It is true that our legislators sometimes try to turn the engine of the law upon the evil-doers who would tamper with food, but their wisdom is rarely sufficient to aim the legislation rightly, or properly to enforce it. Protection for the people cannot come by mere law-making alone, but by a general enlightenment as to food contamination, and by the establishment, at convenient points, of laboratories, manned by experts in inspection and analysis.

Many States have laws on adulteration of foods, some of which are laughably inefficient. Dr. Love makes the statement (Parke's Hygiene, Vol. II, p. 109) that "a majority of the acts aimed at the suppression of adulteration in particular articles make no provision for enforcing the law, and hence, nothing more is heard of them." This shows a lack of proper enlightenment on the subject. Our law-makers do not know. and cannot understand, what is needed.

Again, in several of the larger cities municipal laboratories have been established and have proved exceedingly valuable. Abundance of work has been found for them to do, and they have greatly aided in repressing fraud. For example, the Municipal Laboratory of Paris, capital city of the land of wine, examined, during ten months of 1881, 3,001 samples of wine, finding only 279 of them "good." The laboratories afforded a partial protection for the cities, but their multiplication must force those handling contaminated wares to dispose of them to the unsuspicious and unprotected farmers and dwellers in the small towns. It has seemed to me somewhat anomalous that fertilizer-control stations should be established all over the country, to analyze the food of the plants. whilst no one looks after the food of the farmer. Should there not be

board of health laboratories to examine our water, milk, vegetables and groceries?

I can but briefly speak of some of the more common, and hence more dangerous, forms of food contamination, without entering upon the subject of adulteration in general. In many cases, doubtless, I will but remind you of facts you already know, but by bringing them afresh to your attention something may be done to stay the dangers which beset the people.

Food may be contaminated with metallic poisons accidentally, through ignorance or carelessness, or, secondly, intentionally. Some little instruction in the chemistry of every-day life in our public schools would largely do away with the first source of danger. Analytical experts alone could antagonize the second, and we cannot include intentional adulteration within the scope of this paper.

The principal poisonous metals occurring in food are copper, lead and zinc, and as to the exact physiological action and degree of danger from these, a variety of opinions seem to exist. Hassall calls them all cumulative poisons. This can only be true of some of them by extending the word cumulative to the effects resulting from their action. The system, for instance, is apparently capable of eliminating a little of the zinc compounds, but the derangement caused by frequently repeated small doses may so aggravate as to cause serious trouble.

The contamination of water with lead from the conducting pipes has been the object of so much attention that this danger is generally well guarded against, and will need no special mention in this paper. But there is a great and growing danger with regard to zinc salts getting into our drinking and cooking water, and to this I have already adverted in the North Carolina Medical Journal, Vol. XIII, No. 5, p. 221. The use of zinc or zinc-lined vessels, for storing water, and of galvanized iron pipe in transporting it, is becoming more and more common. I have examined water thus brought through galvanized iron pipe a distance of 200 vards, and found 4.29 grains of zinc to the gallon.

Galvanized iron is iron coated over with zinc. It is well to state, also, that this zinc nearly always contains arsenic. In some localities milk is often kept in zinc or galvanized iron vessels. Such vessels are cheap lasting, and, besides, have the effect of keeping the milk sweet a longer time than usual and adding about twelve per cent. to the amount of the cream. The explanation of these last actions is to be sought for in the neutralization of the acid, as fast as formed, by the zinc giving zinc lactate. From the presence of this acid such use of zinc is much more dangerous than in the storage of water.

If water and milk attack and dissolve zinc and lead when brought in contact with them, manifestly the solvent action is greatly increased in the case of distinctly acid foods, such as fruits and vegetables. We find in these especially acetic, tartaric, citric, malic and aspartic acids, some-

times uncombined, sometimes as partially saturated, and hence, still acid salts. These have strong solvent action on some metals, particularly if the process of oxidation is going on at the same time. Furthermore, meats which have been salted attack such metals, and where either the meat or the flavoring substance, as mustards or onions, contain sulphur, the action is increased.

Lastly, it must be borne in mind that fats are slowly saponified by these metals, glycerine being set free, and compounds called soaps or plasters formed between the metals and the acids of the fats,

Our ordinary articles of food may be contaminated during preparation or by storage. In preparing food in metallic vessels several agents aid in the solvent action. First, there is atmospheric oxygen, which is present in the water used in cooking; then we may mention acids such as vinegar and salt, soda and sugar. The metals are probably first attacked by the oxygen forming oxides, and these are brought into solution by the aid of the acids, salt, soda, (forming with lead, for instance, plumbate of soda,) or the sugar (forming saccharates). If cooking vessels, especially copper or brass, are scrupulously cleaned and brightened, freeing them from all oxide (or verdigris), just before using, and then the substances cooked in them removed as soon as the cooking is over, not allowing time for oxidation and solution, the danger of contamination is much lessened.

Copper and brass vessels are so convenient that their use is greatly extended, but it would be far better if the inside were freshly tinned every now and then. This precaution is taken by the Asiatics, who heat the copper above the melting point of tin, and then rub over the interior a piece of block-tin. Tin is attacked, but more slowly than the other metals, and forms less objectionable compounds. Unfortunately, much of the block-tin offered for sale is impure, having arsenic, antimony, lead and copper as its principal impurities, and cases of serious arsenical and lead poisoning have been noticed from the use of tin-lined vessels. Still, pure tin can be gotten, and even the impure is better than the unprotected copper or brass (which is an alloy of zinc and copper).

Metallic cooking vessels are often protected by a coating of glaze or enamel. The glazing generally employed is of two kinds—either it is composed of aluminium and potassium silicate, along with calcium phosphate or sulphate, or some similarly harmless materials that is glass enamel: or it is essentially lead-glass with a large proportion of lead. This lead-glass, as being easily fusible, very commonly forms the glaze on yellow and light-colored earthen-ware, which is used for baking-dishes, preserve-jars, milk-crocks, etc. Our ordinary glass table-ware is also lead-glass, generally, but contains less lead and is less easily attacked. It is maintained by some German authorities that even this is dangerous; so that the use of such glass is more common in England

and America than on the continent of Europe. Still, the food remains in contact with it so short a time that the danger can only be slight.

If the earthen-ware has not been properly baked the glaze is still more attacked. In "Muspratt's Chemistry" the statement is made that badly baked ware readily afforded indications of the presence of lead when digested with vinegar. Where these earthen-ware vessels are used for cooking, the lead-glaze becomes decidedly dangerous. Accum has written: "Pots of this kind of stone-ware are wholly unfit to contain jellies of fruits, marmalade and similar conserves. Pickles should in no case be deposited in cream-colored earthen-ware."

The reason for warning against this special color of earthen-ware is because it is usually made of materials which do not stand baking at a high temperature, and hence a more fusible glaze is applied to them.

Accum goes on to say: "The baking of fruit-tarts in cream-colored earthen-ware, and the salting and preserving of meat are no less objectionable. All kinds of food which contain free vegetable acids or saline preparations attack utensils covered with a glaze in the composition, of which lead enters as a component part."

The color in some of the enamels for metals has been mentioned as a source of danger. The cheaper colors that would probably be used, provided that lead-colors are excluded, would, I think, hardly be dangerous.

Frequently cooking vessels of tin-ware are used. Of the tin-ware itself I shall have more to say further on, but I wish now to mention the solder used on such vessels. This is made of lead and tin, and is sometimes present in considerable amounts in the joints of the tin-ware. The boiling of water alone in such vessels will cause the solution of some of the lead, and, of course, the acids of foods would dissolve still more. The ware should be formed of solid tin, without joints, when practicable. If solder must be there, the least amount necessary for the work should be used. Often it is possible so to turn the joint as to bring the solder on the outside. Of course this is much better.

Coming now to the storage of foods, we find occasionally zinc or galvanized iron used as for water and milk. The danger here has been pointed out. The use of glass jars is more common. These should be made not of flint or lead, but of ordinary soda or calcium glass (called "window" or "crown" glass). These should be also entirely of glass. Often we see them with zinc tops or covers which are screwed down upon the contents. In Parke's Hygiene, Vol. II, p. 514, a case is reported where serious sickness attended the use of cherries preserved in such a jar. It was found that these cherries contained a small amount of zinc, whereas the same amount of fruit preserved in jars with glass covers did not contain the metal. The sickness in this case may or may not have been due to the zinc, but the fact of the contamination, and, at least, probable danger from it, remains.

By far, the most common article used for storing food is tin. The use

of this in the cans for fruit, vegetables and meats, and the buckets for lard, oil, etc., is enormous. I have been unable to find out from the census reports the exact amount of tin-ware used in this way in the United States, but as the tin is mainly imported and bears a duty-tax of between \$5,000,000 and \$6,000,000 (which it has been proposed in the present Congress to double), the value of the ware must be many millions.

As each can has the value of a few cents only, their total number is something incredible. In the census of 1880 the value of fruits and vegetables alone, "canned and preserved," is given as \$17,599,576: and the industry is growing rapidly. I see it announced in the papers that our Agent of Immigration is making arragements for the establishment of forty canneries in this State.

Tinware is made by dipping sheet-iron, or thin sheets of steel, into melted tin, securing thus a protective coating over the former metal. There are two grades of tin-ware—that in which the coating is of fairly pure tin; and, secondly, that in which, to cheapen the product, the tin has a large admixture of lead. This is known as terne-plate. The first has a bright appearance; the second is heavier and of a duller appearance. The same two grades are seen in tin-foil also.

If, as is required by the French Government, the tin cans are made of the first grade ware, and the soldering is done either with pure tin or on the outside, the only possible contamination must come from the tin itself. If terne-plate is used, and special care is not taken, tin and lead, from both can and solder, and zinc chloride from the latter, may be present in the contents of the can. A solution of zinc chloride is the common soldering fluid, and its detection in canned goods has been reported by Battershall. Even with pure tin, the careless and excessive use of solder is frequently a source of danger, as lumps of the solder break off and are taken into the stomach along with the food.

Battershall ("Food Adulteration and its Detection," p. 225.) records the examination of 109 samples of canned goods, 97 of which contained tin, 39 copper, 4 zinc, and 2 lead. The copper was introduced by the preparation, in copper vessels before canning, or was intentionally added as CuSO<sub>4</sub>, to give a green color, as in peas, pickles, etc. The small number of samples found to contain lead showed that the terne-plate is not much used in making cans. Indeed, Hall (American Chemical Journal, Vol. IV., p. 440.) states that he has tested cans from various sources and not once did he find enough to show intentional adulteration. The leaded tin, or terne-plate is too heavy and dull-looking for ordinary use in cans. though it is largely used in roofing, and so can easily come in cistern water caught from such roofs. In the Michigan Board of Health Report for 1878 (page 19), however, analyses of tinware are given, in which lead in appreciable, and even considerable amount was always found.

Hall also gives some analyses of tin-foil, which is so much used as a covering for such food as chocolate, yeast, cheese, confections, and the like. Out of eight samples analyzed, four contained about 75 per cent. of lead. The high price of the article enclosed seemed by no means to insure a pure tin covering. Cheese, as it contains acid, or so easily forms it, should certainly not be enclosed in tin-foil.

Of course, other things being equal, the longer the vegetable or fruit acids are left in contact with the tin, the greater will be amount of metal dissolved. The contents of some cans examined have contained as much as four grains per quart. Now, while no injury seems to result from small doses of tin, and it does not seem to accumulate in the system, large doses must be prejudicial. It would be advisable, then, to have all cans stamped with the year in which they were put up. The assurance of the healthfulness of canned goods, after being kept a few years, is not great.

The canning of foods has formed one of our most important discoveries, and has greatly added to the comforts of modern life. I would by no means decry the use of canned goods; and tinware seems at present essential to their cheapness. But the people should be instructed as to the possible dangers in their use. Special warning should be given, however, against leaving fruit or vegetables in the opened cans, as the action on the metals is very rapid, after air is once admitted.

Within the limits of this paper it would be impracticable to give all the possible contaminations of foods with metals—the more usual have been recounted. The less common—as, for instance, the case of the baker, mentioned by Blyth (Poisons, page 565), who used old painted wood in the fire of his oven, and so covered his loaves with the dust of lead-oxide and poisoned sixty-six persons—must be passed by. Nor can we enter upon the fraudulent, intentional addition of metals to foods. Such are to be looked for wherever man's greed and dishonesty can find opportunity.

To the physiological chemist and the physician I leave the discussion of the degree of danger from the presence of these various metals in the ordinary articles of our food.

# A PRELIMINARY REPORT ON THE ANALYSES OF QUININE, BISMUTH AND LAUDANUM, TO DETERMINE THE ADULTERATION OR IMPURITIES.

## BY PROF. F. P. VENABLE, PH. D., F. C. S.

### CITRATE OF IRON AND QUININE.

Should contain 12 per cent. quinine.

Sample No. 1 contained 6.0 p. c. quinine.

Sample No. 2 contained 13.5 p. c. quinine. Good.

Sample No. 3 contained 10.0 p. c. quinine.

Sample No. 4 contained 11.9 p. c. quinine. Good

### BISMUTH SUBNITRATE.

Sample No. 1 contained slight trace of lead.

Sample No. 2 contained trace lead, carbonates in considerable amount, small amount chlorides and sulphates.

Sample No. 3 contained carbonates in considerable amount.

Sample No. 4 contained sulphates in trace. Good.

Sample No. 5 contained carbonates in small amount; sulphates considerable.

Sample No. 6 contained carbonates in small amount; sulphates considerable.

Sample No. 7 contained carbonates and sulphates in considerable amount, chlorides in small amount, arsenic in trace.

Sample No. 8 contained chlorides and sulphates in small amount. Good.

Sample No. 9 contained trace of lead.

Sample No. 10 contained carbonates and chlorides in considerable amount; sulphates small.

Sample No. 11 contained chlorides and sulphates in considerable amount; carbonates small.

# SULPHATE OF QUININE.

	honi-
Sample No. 1 contained p. c. H <sub>2</sub> O, 12.96, p. c. quin. sulph., 83.48,	3.56
Sample No. 2 contained p. c. H <sub>2</sub> O, 7.30, p. c. quin. sulph., 86.73,	5.97
Sample No. 3 contained p. c. H <sub>2</sub> O, 11.40, p. c. quin. sulph., 83.16,	5.44
Sample No. 4 contained p. c. H <sub>2</sub> O, 14.22, p. c. quin. sulph., 80.99,	4.79
Sample No. 5 contained p. c. H <sub>2</sub> O, 8.15, p. c. quin. sulph., 83.88,	7.97
Sample No. 6 contained p. c. H <sub>2</sub> O, 6.34, p. c. quin. sulph., 84.58,	9.08
Sample No. 7 contained p. c. H <sub>2</sub> O, 7.50, p. c. quin. sulph., 84.80,	7.70
Sample No. 8 contained p. c. H <sub>2</sub> O, 6.12, p. c. quin, sulph., 85.32,	8.56

Laudanum.	Alcohol by volume.	Extract in 100 c. c.	p. c. Morphia.
Sample No. 1 contained	45	4.53	.18
Sample No. 2 contained	. 18	1.71	.13
Sample No. 3 contained	47	3.91	.22
Sample No. 4 contained	46.	3.71	.18
Sample No. 5 contained	45.	4.27	.15
Sample No. 6 contained	33.	4.32	.19
Sample No. 7 contained	44.	4.87	.17
Analyses of English Laudanum	in		
1882, by Woodland, gave		5.01-3.21	.70-32.

In the above the p. c. alcohol should, according to Pharmacop., be about 45. The extract shows well in four cases out of seven. The morphine is very low. I have no American analyses with which to compare it.

## GROCERS LAUDANUM.

Sample No. 1 contained 36. p. c. alcohol.

Sample No. 2 contained 43. p. c. alcohol.

Sample No. 3 contained 27. p. c. alcohol.

Sample No. 4 contained 38 p. c. alcohol.

These samples (*Grocers Landanum*) were too small in amount for proper determination of anything more than alcohol. With one exception they were less than one ounce—\(^3\_4\) ounces at least should be provided for thorough work.

In the samples of *quinine sulphate* the first four would be classed as good: the last four are fair. The range of cinchonidine, etc., in pure quinine sulphate is about 6 per cent.

In the bismuth subnitrate samples traces of certain impurities are to be expected. Those reported as "in considerable amount" were in quantities too large for a good article. Even traces of lead and arsenic must be prejudicial.

# [NOTE BY THE SECRETARY, ON THE ADULTERATION OF DRUGS.]

Very little attention has been paid by our people to the adulterations and impurities of drugs or food-substances, notwithstanding the fact that it is generally known that a provision was made by the General Assembly, some years ago, with a view of affording the opportunity. Prof. Venable kindly undertook to make analyses, as his time allowed, to inaugurate an inquiry into the adulteration or impurities of some of

the medicines in common use, and to continue the work as he could afford the time in the future. The number of analyses is small, but it was deemed of sufficient importance to publish. The names of the dealers and manufacturers are not given, the articles being duly numbered and recorded. This course was deemed the wisest, as the responsibility of dispensing impure drugs may not rest entirely with the druggist, the dealer himself many times being as anxious as any one to know what articles prepared for him by the chemist are not reliable.

Bismuth, quinine and laudanum being of such universal use, were selected, and it is very interesting to note how far they vary from the standard laid down by the Pharmacopoeia of the United States.

With the light these few analyses now give us, doubtless the field is one which will yield good results, both for the dealers and the consumers. The Secretary desires to add, that these samples were purchased in the open market from Wilmington, Washington, Raleigh, Winston. Durham and Chapel Hill, and that he hopes to be able to get samples from all the larger towns in the State the coming year.

#### THE SEWERAGE OF CITIES AND TOWNS.

By J. L. Ludlow, C. E., M. S., Member N. C. Board of Health, Civil and Sanitary Engineer, Winston, N. C.

"We live or we die, live well or miserably; live our full term or perish prematurely—according as we shall wisely or otherwise determine."

Dr. Henry Maccormac has left this trueism as a monument to his superior intelligence, and to his studied appreciation of the perfect development of nature, as designed in Divine creation when it was given to mankind to enjoy or abuse, a free agency of the effects of creation and the natural laws thereof.

The various diseases by which humanity is enfeebled, both bodily and mentally—languishes in most intense suffering, and brought to premature death—are not our natural heritage, but the perversion of a glorious heritage by man's abuse and neglect of the laws and demands of nature.

Baldwin Latham, the eminent English sanitarian, says: "To those who have carefully studied the physiology of animal life, it will be clear that life and health depend upon rightly understanding and practicing those laws which constitute sanitary science." Hippocrates long ago formulated the cardinal principle of sanitary science and hygiene as the maintenance of "pure air, pure water and pure soil." It is for the preservation of these natural elements that a sewerage system, and other sanitary measures, become a necessity in cities, towns and villages where life and health are fully appreciated, and our natural heritage would be protected. This natural heritage may be described in the language of Dr. Stephen Smith: "Man is born to health and longevity; disease is abnormal, and death, except from old age, is accidental; and both are preventable by human agencies."

Diphtheria makes dark and desolate the former joyous and happy home by taking away the joy and boundless pleasure-producing jewels—the innocent children. Typhoid fever takes the life of a citizen in the prime of manhood, with all his wealth-producing powers fully developed. An epidemic of scarlet fever, yellow fever, typhoid, diphtheria, disentery, or some other of the preventable diseases, multiplies desolate homes, intense suffering and premature deaths, and we raise our hands in horror and wonder how a kind and loving Providence can inflict such a calamity upon our religious and worshipful community. By thus relieving ourselves in sentimentality we may restore the equilibrium of a guilty conscience, but we utter the rankest blasphemy against the pivine Creator and His well defined laws. We are the cause of the epidemic. We are the guilty ones. It is the criminal disregard of the

laws of nature that causes this preventive sickness and premature death of our fellow man, and it is we, ourselves, who must carry the moral responsibility.

Self-preservation is the first desire of all life—from the lowest organism to the crowning monument of creating mankind. There is a universal longing and effort to this end, and there is much proof to demonstrate that this is likewise a duty imposed by the Creator. The Mosaic dispensation clearly illustrates this fact, and likewise demonstrates the universally proven and accepted maxim, that cleanliness of a community is the first law of self-preservation—the preservation of man's natural heritage of health and longevity.

With the advanced knowledge of the law of cause and effect, resulting from the sanitarian's scientific study and investigation, and with the results of sanitary measures before us, we cannot, as intelligent people, attribute the consequences of our own neglect and carelessness to a providential cause. We must recognize that a large proportion of the diseases which are inflicted upon humanity are the effects of preventable causes, and that it is possible, through the medium of sanitary measures, to so reduce the death-rate as to materially increase the average duration of life.

The alchemist of old expended his time in search of a hidden substance of nature, which he supposed to exist, and to be, in fact, an elixir of life, supposing, with much reason, that there existed some subtle force of nature which, if utilized, would prove to be a panacea for all the ills to which he reasoned that man was the natural heir. Had he reversed his law of nature, and followed the true natural law, he would have found that flesh is not heir to disease, but that disease is the heir to the violations of nature's laws in the flesh, and readily found his elixir of youth in these same sanitary measures which the student in sanitary science and the preservation of human life teaches us to observe and diligently practice.

The romantic Ponce de Leon, when he left the crowded metropolis of Spain and sailed across the ocean to an unknown and uninhabited country, in search of the fountain of perpetual youth, acted with some reason. From a city, where pure air, pure water and pure soil had been destroyed by the unnatural accumulations of filth and uncleanness—a very hot-bed of disease and death—to God's own free, fair and unpolluted country, where naught had yet come to destroy the lifegiving and life-sustaining elements of pure air, water, and soil, was indeed to find a fountain of perpetual youth, for who can gainsay that fifteen years added to the average life is not at least as if to transform age to youth?

This same fountain of youth is ours but for the taking of it. Would we enjoy it in congregated communities of cities and towns, to which we are wont to repair? Then but remember that public filth is public dis-

grace, and that sickness and death is the natural consequence of the abuse of nature's laws: but public cleanliness is public honor, and the practice of sanitary measures is to secure intellectuality, advanced civilization and achievements, health, happiness, and longevity. To maintain this public cleanliness, provision must be made for the preservation of the natural elements of pure air, pure water, and pure soil, by at once removing the effete substances of the body, and all other filth, to points remote from the community, by the construction of a sanitary system of sewerage, and practicing other sanitary measures in conjunction therewith. Without this provision, the natural soil will become foul and polluted, and, in time, totally unfit for human habitation.

Would you not leave to your posterity the city, town or village abounding in filth, disease and premature death, with all their train of unhappiness, pauperism, crime, enfeebled mind and body, and a degenerated civilization? Then have a care how you carry on the process of soil-pollution; for, when the soil becomes impure the air becomes likewise impure by the foul emanations from the soil; the water is also polluted by absorption from the air and transfusion from the soil; and you have flagrantly disregarded the cardinal principle of sanitary science and nature's laws, and sickness, epidemics and premature death is the natural result. But the soil, you say, is a purifier of filth. It is, but this property of the soil is limited. By constant absorption of impurities the soil is overloaded and itself becomes impure, and it is no longer a purifier, but a polluter, in the effort to purify itself. Behold and beware of the sad history of Rome, once the proud metropolis and centre of civilization of the world, but now a plague-stricken city for several months of each year.

Ancient Rome, under the rule of the Pagan Kings, had her Cloaca, Maxima and other sewers, which ramified the entire city. Massive baths, acqueducts and the accompanying sanitary measures maintained her cleanliness, and the observance of nature's laws, enabling her to be a grand metropolis of health, wealth and power. But, with the fall of Rome, we find the necessity of sanitary provisions lost sight of or unheeded, and the more modern Rome destroying the sewers, tearing down the massive baths and aqueducts to build churches and monasteries, totally disregarding the accumulated nastiness of the years during the fall and recuperation. Until to-day, christian Rome, with her glorious heritage of past achievements, having permitted these sanitary works to pass into decay, has many pages of her more modern history blackened by the most horrifying accounts of terrible scourges of plague and epidemics, paying the natural penalty of soil-pollution, as the most deadly and dangerous plague-spot that has ever blotted creation.

Under the present regime, Rome is again giving due attention to sanitary measures, and the death-rate is being gradually reduced, and the deadly Roman fever is being rapidly obliterated.

If we investigate any age or any people of which history records the advancement of civilization, art and science to any degree of refinement and excellence, we find that the importance of sanitary measures were fully appreciated and invariably adopted. Thus, in Alexandria, Carthage, Herculaneum, Jerusalem, Ninevah, all had their complete systems of sewerage and water-supply. Under the Mosaic dispensation, all sanitary laws then known were religiously observed, and we find that the Jews had a clear knowledge of the necessity of removing all effete substances and filth from within and about their habitations. The duty and necessity of observing and practising these laws of nature against soil-pollution was a prominent part of the inspiration to Moses, when pursuing the Divine task of leading the Hebrew tribes out of the wilderness of death and destruction. The devout adherence of the Jews to the practice of the sanitary laws prescribed by Moses has given to that race to enjoy greater health and vigor, even to the present day, than any other race of people on the face of the earth, in similar circumstances.

As we advance in history to the middle or dark ages, we find that the importance of sanitary measures, which had characterized the Jews and the Rome of the Pagan Kings, was entirely lost sight of, and the statute books bore no trace of these important laws, the first in importance for the preservation and promotion of advanced civilization and refinement. With this decline, there is recorded a parallel decline in art, science and civilization: Beyond question, enlightenment and sanitation are inseparable companions—the advancement of the one requires the advancement of the other.

For the thousand years preceding the protest of Luther, that cardinal law of christianity, that "cleanliness is next to godliness," was completely disregarded, and filth, by force of circumstances, was sanctioned by the influence of the Christian church. The Christian outlaws of Pagan Rome, to maintain their faith, were forced to seek refuge from their persecutors in the dark and filthy catacombs beneath the city, and filth and unclean personal appearance became a measure of the sanctity and personal sacrifice for their Christian faith. Through this cause the importance of cleanly surroundings was wholly lost sight of. But the laws of nature could not be defied, even for such a good cause, without impunity, and as this neglect extended from person to community, from community to city, there came, in due time, the inevitable result. Outraged nature aroused them from their insanitary neglect by the natural consequence of pestilence in various forms visited upon these disregardants of nature's laws. Epidemics of plague, typhus and cholera devastated Europe from the 14th to the 17th centuries, much more terrible in fatal results than was ever caused by the most bitter warfare in history. England in twenty-two (22) years of continuous warfare lost 79,700 lives, but in one (1) year alone cholera robbed her of 144,860 lives.

During the prevalence of the plague at York, in 1664, there was one

(1) death to every three (3) persons living, but during the cholera epidemic of 1832 there was one (1) death to each 142 persons living, an improvement directly traceable, by the resurrected city archives, to the improved sewerage and drainage of the city. In the year following the city of London is supposed to have lost 75,000 lives by her last visitation of the plague, Black Death, as it has been called.

The history of the town of Chester furnishes another lesson of the fearful results attending the utter neglect of sanitary precautions which characterized the degenerate civilization of the middle ages. Of this we have the following record:

"In 1507 sweating sickness was very severe in Chester for three days; ninety-one died. In 1517, great plague; grass a foot high in the streets. 1550, sweating sickness. 1603, great plague; sixty died weekly, in all 650 persons. 1604, plague; 812 deaths. 1605, plague still increasing; 1,303 deaths. In 1649, 2,099 persons died of the plague."

Such was the inevitable result of the disregard of nature's laws for self-preservation, "pure air, pure water and pure soil." These unfortunate people, in their blind ignorance, charged all their mysterious sickness and deaths to Divine Providence, as some are inclined to do even in this enlightened era, but forgot their garbage heaps, foul streets, dirty houses, personal uncleanness and their total lack of sanitary provisions. Ignorance cannot be plead in mitigation of violations of civil law, much less in physical laws of nature. Nature's laws were made unchangeable for all time, irradicable as creation itself. "God never breaks His laws; He never permits them to be violated with impunity. They operate in the material universe with inevitable accuracy."

Gladly do I turn from this sad history of the past to the more cheerful task of recording the benefits that have been derived from the practicing of sanitary measures, but this pleasure is checked by the thought that, even in the brilliant enlightenment of our present century, the lessons of the past have been but poorly learned. We have had—and even now are having-black spots in our own country; our New Orleans, our Memphis, our Jacksonville epidemics, and many others of greater or less magnitude. It behooves us, as a country and as a State of enlightened people, that these terrible lessons be not passed over lightly and unheeded. By the epidemics of New Orleans, in 1853, there were 5.122 deaths from yellow fever, with a total of 7,000 deaths from all diseases. In one day-August 22-the deaths from yellow fever numbered 239. This great number of deaths were recorded, and it is generally believed that there were many deaths, also, which were not recorded. Of the condition of the city at the time of the outbreak of the epidemic. we are told that the streets were reeking with filth, and miasmic odors prevailed throughout the city, caused by the decomposing animal and vegetable matter that had been scattered promiscuously throughout the city. Everything had, of custom, been thrown into the streets that the

inhabitants desired to be rid of, and lay there, seething and rotting. The canals and their tributaries, and the city drains as well, were covered with a green slime so completely that the water was entirely hidden from view. In the pools were dead animals floating about with every other description of animal decomposition. It was by this wretched insanitary condition that the seeds of epidemic were united and developed, with such disastrous results in the loss of human life. Yellow fever, and kindred maladies, were more or less prevalent in the city till 1862, when active sanitary measures were put into effect. The drains were cleaned out; the streets were scraped, swept and washed of all deleterious matter; the canals and their tributaries were cleansed of their germ-festering scum; stringent orders were issued against throwing any filth, or decaying vegetable or animal matter, in the streets or open courts; all refuse matter was required to be placed in proper receptacles and was then promptly removed without the city and disinfected: every household was required to clean up its premises and keep them clean. The entire city was placed in as thorough sanitary condition as the location and local conditions would permit. The gratifying result of this was, that not one of the 160,000 inhabitants, or the many thousand of totally unacclimated troops, was stricken with vellow fever during that year. These sanitary measures had so improved the general healthfulness of the city that, for the summer of 1862, New Orleans is said to have shown a less rate of mortality than any other city in the country. These results were continuous, and, with this as a beginning. the city entered upon a new era of substantial freedom from epidemic and malarious diseases. They exchanged spoons for health. How can we appreciate the enormous, immeasurable benefits accruing to the city of these sanitary measures?

The financial loss by the yellow fever epidemic of 1853 may be closely approximated as follows: 5,122 lives, at \$1,000 each (which is a minimum estimate), amounts to \$5,122,000: estimating five cases of sickness to each death (the Jacksonville epidemic shows ten cases to each death). the cost of which, including loss of time, medical attendance and nursing at a low estimate, would be \$40 each, or \$1,024,400, making a total of \$6,146,400.

The city of Memphis, Tennessee, disregarding the valuable lesson taught by this short page of the history of New Orleans, scrupulously neglected all sanitary measures. The streets had been allowed to become filth-channels. The soil of the city was permitted to become not unlike a vast compost heap, through the lack of a sewerage system to remove the filth, instead of carrying on the continued process of soil-pollution. The laws of nature had been totally diregarded and violated, with the consequences that we have been taught by the history of centuries, even from the time of Moses, to be inevitable.

In 1878 we see Memphis visited by a terrible epdemic of yellow fever,

with a fatality almost unparalleled. The commerce of the city was entirely suspended, thousands of the inhabitants were dead and dying, and many others making every effort to desert the city. The city government was bankrupted and disbanded, demoralization and panic were general throughout the city, until cold weather came and put a check upon the ravages of the dreaded yellow visitor. In the meantime, 5,022 persons had lost their lives by the criminal negligence of those in authority over the sanitary and general condition of the city.

Only after this costly lesson was the city induced to seek relief by complying with the lawful demands of nature through the practice of sanitary measures. A sanitary system of sewerage was adopted and executed with scientific skill and efficiency. Other sanitary reforms, made possible and efficient by the construction of sewers, were put into practice, with the gratifying results best told in the decreased mortality and absence of epidemics since these measures were executed. \* \* \* \*

Under the former condition of the city, the annual death-rate per 1.000 inhabitants was 109, while under the present regime, as shown by the statistics of 1887, it has been reduced to 23.56 per 1,000. With the changed sanitary condition seemed to come a new confidence and interest in life. New vigor and energy characterized the inhabitants of the city, and its healthfulness attracted immigration, with a consequent great increase in industrial and commercial importance, and an increased population from 33,593 in 1880, to 65.000 in 1888.

The financial value of this increased prosperity can hardly be estimated, at least the proportion due to the changed sanitary condition. We can, however, demonstrate a great financial saving in human life and healthfulness alone, directly due to the sanitary measures put into practice.

The average population for the years from 1880 to 1888 has been in round numbers, 45,000. The average death-rate reduction may safely be placed at 50 per 1.000 inhabitants, or a total saving of 2,250 lives annually. At the least valuation placed upon a human life in the United States, this saving of life would amount to \$2,250,000 annually. The number of cases of sickness likewise prevented may be safely estimated at eight to each death, making 18,000, the cost of which, including loss of time, medical attendance, and nursing at \$50 each, would have been \$900,000. These two items make a total annual saving of \$3,150,000.

Estimating six per cent. upon the cost of the sewerage system, and adding the annual expense of carrying on the work of the very excellent city Board of Health, makes a total annual expenditure of \$36,337.86 to effect this enormous annual saving of human life—in money value only.

The epidemic of yellow fever at Jacksonville, Fla., and other southern towns during the past year, is but further results of the lack of sanitary measures. In all the towns where this epidemic secured any foothold, it can safely be asserted that little or no attention had been previously given to their sanitary condition. These communities were living amidst the accumulations of their own filth, with utter disregard to the natural law against air, water and soil pollution. The inevitable result was a severe epidemic, with all its train of moral, physical and financial loss. Hundreds were suffering the most intense agony, and premature deaths were numbered by the score before sanitary measures were apparently thought of. But, when such an epidemic has already settled upon a community, it is then too late to prevent the damages by any hygienic means. This should be effected before the outbreak to render a full return. Though it is happily conspicuous of the epidemic at Jacksonville, that, owing to the efforts of the Sanitary Committee and Board of Health, and the greater knowledge of its treatment by the medical profession, the rate of fatality has been reduced to one (1) death to ten (10) cases of sickness, and the extent of the epidemic has been comparatively very limited—the number of cases having been 4,700. But when the seeds of such epidemics have once found a suitable locality for development and growth, their destructive effect is beyond the control of human agency. From the history of New Orleans, Memphis and Jacksonville, it seems to be clearly deduced that a yellow fever epidemic, like every other, may be prevented by the practice of sanitary measures. But, when the prevention is not applied, and a foothold is obtained, cold weather alone can check its ravages.

Dr. Morris H. Henry, a prominent expert on the origin and treatment of yellow fever, recently speaking of the Florida epidemic, has this to say regarding the intimate relation of disease and death with insanitation and unclean surroundings: "The popular idea of yellow-fever is, that its presence is accidental. \* \* Yellow fever is no more the result of accident than were the plagues of the East or the great plague of London. The plague of London was not a punishment from Divine Providence. It was a natural sequence of the absence of all sanitary laws, and the failure to adopt any prophylactic measures to prevent the spread of what are now known, in plain Anglo-Saxton, as fitth diseases."

# BENEFICIAL RESULTS FROM SANITATION.

Illustrating the reduction of disease and mortality of towns and cities, due directly to the construction of efficient systems of sewerage, I will first quote Sir Douglass Galton, K. C. B., F. R. S., an eminent English sanitarian, in an address before the Sanitary Institute of Great Britian: "It may be accepted as certain that in every case where the sewerage of towns has been devised in sound principles, and where the works have been carried on under intelligent supervision, a largely reduced deathrate has invariably followed. The records of Newcastle afford evidence of this fact. The quinquennial period ending in 1881 showed a death-

rate of twenty-three per 1,000, whilst the death-rate of 1881, after the completion of the system of sewerage, was only twenty-one per 1,000." "At Munich the typhoid fever mortality per 10,000 inhabitants per quinquennial period was as follows: From 1875 to 1880, when the sewerage system was complete...... 8.7 "Similarly, at Frankfort-on-Main, the deaths from typhoid fever per 10 000 inhabitants were: From 1875 to 1887, when the sewerage system was complete...... 2.4 "At Dantzic the figures present some striking characteristics; the deaths from typhoid fever per 100,000 living was as follows: From 1865 to 1869, when there was no sewerage or water-supply....108 From 1871 to 1875, after the introduction of water-supply 90 From 1876 to 1880, after the completion of a sewerage system...... 18 "At Hamburg, the deaths per 1,000 of total population were: 1838 to 1844, before the commencement of the construction of sewerage works \_\_\_\_\_\_48.5 

"During the time that the works were in progress, viz.: from 1872 to 1874, the mortality from typhoid was a follows:

In the unsewered districts40	0.0
In the districts for the most part sewered	2.0
In the fully-covered districts	3.8

Dr. Buchanan, as "Medical Officer of the Privy Council" of England. in the ninth report, has shown the marked improvement to health following the introduction of systems of sewerage and water-supply in twenty-five cities and towns, with an aggregate population of 593,736

This report shows the effects of providing for the purity of the air, water and soil of towns, by providing water from an uncontaminated source, and by the prompt removal of all effete and refuse matter before putrefaction and soil-pollution could take place, by a reduction of 24 per cent. in the mortality of typhoid fever alone. Dr. C. W. Chancellor,

Secretary of the Maryland Board of Health, and a thorough sanitarian, states in his "Report on Improved Methods of Sewerage Disposal and Water-Supplies," (from which these quotations are taken), that it is fair to presume that diphtheria and other gymotic miasmatic fevers would be similarly affected.

Concerning the benefits derived in England, during the period from 1870 to 1880, from sanitary measures, the Local Government Board, in their report, speaks as follows:

"On the demonstration of various model instances, it may be held that the reduction of the general death-rate by 4½ per cent., as reported, satisfactory as this is, cannot be considered more than one-third of the results obtainable by advanced sanitary administrations and further sanitary works. The pain and misery and the social disorder occasioned by excessive sickness and premature mortality are greatly beyond pecuniary estimation."

Mr. Baldwin Latham, the eminent English engineer and sanitarian, in his work on "Sanitary Engineering," gives tabulated results, in the annual death-rate reduction per 1,000 inhabitants, following the introduction of systems of sewerage in various English towns and cities, from which the following list is taken:

Banbury-po	pulation	10,000;	death-rate	reduction	$123.4  ext{ to } 20.5 - 12rac{1}{2}  ext{ per c}$	t.
Cardiff—	**	33,000;	44	4.6	33.2  to  22.6 - 32  per c	t.
Crayden—	6.6	30,000;	**	6.6	23.7  to  18.6 - 22  per c	t.
Ely—	64	8,000;	6.6	4.6	23.9 to 20.5-14 per c	t.
Wacclesfield-		27,000;	64	4.6	29.8 to 23.7—20 per c	t.
Newport-	4.6	25,000;	64	6.6	31.8 to 21.6-32 per c	t.
Salisbury-	6.6	9,000		6.6	27.5 to 21.9-20 per c	t.

Unfortunately, the lack of statistical records of American towns and cities precludes the possibility of illustrating as fully the advantages of sanitation in our own country. Yet the fragmentary data that has been compiled shows equally or greater gratifying results than the above showing for European towns and cities. The statement will pass unchallenged, that in any American town or city, where any attention whatever has been given to sanitary measures, greatly reduced sickness and mortality among the inhabitants has been the result.

The city of St. Louis, Missouri, furnishes an average specimen of the benefits to be derived from the construction of sanitary works. In 1860, when the city had given little or no attention to sanitation, the annual death-rate was 32 per 1,000. This extreme rate of mortality continued until the year 1865. During 1865–70, a proper sewerage system was constructed, and accompanying sanitary reforms were put in operation, with the result that the death-rate in 1870 was 20 per 1,000 inhabitants—a saving of twelve human lives and 120 cases of preventable

sickness in each thousand of the city's population. The population of St. Louis. in 1870. 310,864: in 1860, 160,773. The average population from 1865 to 1870 may be taken at 298,341. Thus we have, as the result of the sanitary works, the saving of 298.34+12, or 3,580 human lives and the prevention of 35,800 cases of sickness annually. The financial value to the city of these results is shown by the following estimate, based upon minimum values:

\$3,580,000	3,580 human lives at \$1,000
50	35.800 cases of prevented sickness at
\$5.370.000	Total annual saving of

In the foregoing pages I have endeavored to clearly show the evil results of sanitary neglect, and the varied and positive benefits to be derived from the practice of sanitary measures. I have also endeavored to demonstrate that the essence of all sanitation is the maintenance of pure air, pure water, and pure soil in and about the habitations of man. Now, the question will naturally arise, How can these elements be preserved in their primeval purity, and what are the constituent features of sanitation as regards this object? Of these three elements, the one directly requiring the most of human agency is the soil.

It is but feebly realized what an important part the soil performs in providing health and happiness to our lives. Upon this very largely, if not wholly, depends the purity of the air and water. Polluted soil means polluted water and impure air. If we preserve the purity of the soil, the air and water will retain their purity.

The soil is the medium by which nature transforms the waste product of animal life into vegetable life. Nature has provided that when any of her agents, whether it be air, water or food, has once served the purpose of sustaining animal life, that it becomes totally unfit for its further promotion, without another transformation—becomes, in fact, destructive to animal existence; but, through this very process, these agents have lost that which is detrimental to vegetable life in furnishing the combustion of the animal kingdom; they are then prepared for the support of vegetable life, and by vegetable growth the chemical combinations are made which causes this inert matter to become again prepared for the nourishment of man and animals. The vegetable kingdom requires for its support that which forms the waste product of the animal kingdom. It utilizes these, and renders a product again suitable for the healthful use of the animal kingdom. Such is the cycle of the subtle forces of nature in a grand development. While the atmosphere plays quite an important part in this process, the first few feet of the soil is the grand laboratory where the chemical disintegrations and combinations are effected. Consequently, when the soil is polluted by accumulations of filth, this transformation is carried on in order that the soil may again purify itself. This process of transformation of matter has, either as an agent or as a result, the development of low forms of microscopic life, known as bacteria, in direct proportion to the amount of filth with which the soil is charged. These minute organisms play a large part in the processes of the organic world, and have direct relation to many of the common diseases. And it has been clearly demonstrated that most all, if not every one, of the infectious and contagious diseases are directly produced by, and dependent upon specific forms of these micro-organisms; that these minute organisms, developed in the decomposition of filth, are the direct cause of what are known as filth diseases, viz.: typhoid, yellow and scarlet fevers, diphtheria, [cholera, dysentery, etc.

The soil being very porous, is constantly laden with large quantities of water and air, and when these bacteria are present in the soil, the water and air in the soil become likewise their carriers and direct communicators to the human body. Ground-water is constantly flowing through the soil under the same hydrostatic laws which govern the flow in streams, always seeking a lower level, and the streams and wells are thus supplied. But when the water has become charged with bacteria, they are not arrested by its flowing through the soil. The soil will arrest coarse material, such as grease and slime, but the bacteria diffuse with ease and follow the flow wholly unobstructed; and by their own development and multiplicity, and their accumulating numbers, they derive an accelerated vigor in their power to destroy human life.

Hence, a privy-vault or cess-pool, leeching into the soil and developing bacteria, charges the surrounding soil with multitudes of disease-producing micro-organisms, which, in turn, pollute the ground-water and air-cells, the ground-water flowing on to supply the neighboring stream or well; and from there these disease-germs are directly introduced into the system by an innocent-looking, sparkling beverage which nature intends should be healthful and life-sustaining. But by this contamination it is transformed into a rank poison, and when once introduced into the system, the disease-germ finding suitable conditions for development, intense suffering and premature death is the result.

Water being the principal agent for conveying nutrition to every part of the human system, deleterious matter, with which it may be charged, is passed very rapidly and completely to the whole system by the natural absorption of the blood.

Directly from polluted soil we likewise have polluted air. Decomposing matter is invariably exposed on the surface of polluted soil. The gases evolved from this, as well as directly from the polluted soil, are absorbed into the atmosphere. The gases from animal decomposition are, like those from the soil, charged with bacteria. By the process of transfusion of gases the air we breathe is then contaminated with these

disease-germs. 'The air, when so polluted, makes an effort to oxidize and purify the deteriorating elements, with the result of lost vitality and unfitness to sustain animal life in health.

In the act of breathing, these noxious elements are introduced into the system, with the result of lowered natural vitality and great susceptibility of disease, and the blood becomes corrupted just as effectually as if it were inoculated by any known poison.

Pure air, pure water, and wholesome food are the three important agents for the healthful promotion of human life: they are likewise the weapons of defence against the ravishes of disease and premature death. These natural agents, provided in their normal purity, comfort, health. and longevity are the results; if, as is so sadly frequent, they are provided in an abnormal, polluted state, diseases, epidemics and premature deaths are the natural sequence. Popular sanitation, then, resolves itself into: 1st. The provision of wholesome food products, and the disuse of such food as has been rendered unwholesome by vicious adulterations, by improper cooking, by decomposition or decay; 2d. The provision for the constant exchange of breathed or vitiated air of the buildings in which we reside for a new supply from the atmosphere without; 3d. The maintenance of the purity of the soil in and about the habitations of mankind, and in the source of private and public water-supplies; and 4th. The prompt removal of the effete substances, which nature throws off from the human body, and all other filth common to a dwelling or community, to some point without where its contaminating influence cannot be exercised.

The sanitarian and scientist will continue to more clearly understand the specific nature of the propagating germs of different diseases, and, perhaps, discover the agent for their destruction. They will further teach many valuable lessons for the protection of man's natural heritage of health and longevity. But the four factors of sanitation given above compose a wide field of sanitation, and a thorough observance and practice of their teaching will lead to incalculable results for good. They are of such vital and imperative importance that they should constitute a popular study, and the knowledge of their effects and importance be not confined to but a few persons. All should study, understand and practice them. It is the latter two of these factors which leads directly to my subject. It is the necessity for the prompt removal of filth and the preservation of the purity of the soil, which makes a sanitary system of sewerage a positive necessity for towns and cities.

I have already shown that when the human excreta is permitted to accumulate upon the soil, or to leech through it, from privy-vaults or cess-pools, in any community, the result is, impure air, water, and soil. The same is true of bath-room slops, kitchen slops, waste water, cast promiscuously upon the surface of an undrained soil, to become a stagnant pool or hidden moat, and all the other various forms of filth com-

mon to the habitations of man in congregated communities. It seems, then, that there can be no further question as to the advisability and necessity of getting rid of these substances at all hazards. The question then arises: How can this best be accomplished?

Before proceeding to a discussion of the various expedients for the removal of filth, 1 desire to call further attention to the condition of things where no such provision is made, but where the deposition of excretal matters is made in cess-pools and midden pits. While such a practice was carried on by, and in harmony with, a primitive condition of society, it must be alluded to, as we need not go back to any remote period to find the people addicted to such a loathsome custom.

Repulsive as it is, we are forced to admit that it is a practice of our own time and of many of our own towns, and, in many cases, with little or no useful restrictions. It is not uncommon to find large sections of many of our towns, with the only place of easement a rough structure enclosing a heap upon the surface, or a shallow, open, unwalled cess-pool, within thirty or fifty feet of the kitchen door or of the well which is supposed to furnish wholesome and pure water; that such a supply can be furnished is emphatically an anomaly. It seems, therefore, urgently proper that some evidence be given here of the dangerous condition engendered by such insanitary practices.

It has already been demonstrated that excrementitious matter leeching through the soil is fraught with great danger to life and health; that when it is accumulated upon, or within, the soil, it is thus conveyed to adjacent(?) wells is just as certain and just as plain as that the well renews its supply of water as fast as it is drawn out, the bacteria of putrefying human excrement passes, with water, through the soil with but little less retardation than the water itself. To give positive evidence of this, I will quote from reports and analyses given by Dr. W. H. Corfield, "Professor of Hygiene and Public Health at University College, London, ex-President of the Society of Medical Officers of Health," etc.:

"Thus, at Harpenden, Dr. Hunter reported, in 1864, that the wells were near to the cess-pools, and that the water was so execrable that it was actually abandoned by the people themselves. At Bridgport, where the cess-pools were often mere excavations in the soil, the well-water became turbid after rain, and it has been known to smell offensively, looking yellow, tasting strongly, with a pronounced drainy smell."

In the reports of the Medical Officer of the Privy Council (of England) are continually found such statements as that pumps and wells are "foul and unfit for use by infiltration from cess-pools; that the contents of wells are very foul, it being sometimes necessary to add chloride of lime to the water to destroy the offensive odor; the wells and cess-pools appeared to exchange with great facility."

At Rugby it has been physically demonstrated that the wells were fed

by the cess-pools, and in many cases "the fluid thrown into the cess-pool in the morning is pumped from the well at night," and yet the taint was only apparent at intervals, or when the water had been kept. Thus a rank poison was—and is—not infrequently innocently self-administered. Such subtle enemies of life do not warn us of their approach with a blowing of trumpets or ostentatious appearance, but they make their deadly march upon us in an obscurity in which only the trained expert can detect them, rendering popular protection from them only in the practice of preventive methods.

The source of pollution of well-water was pointed, out in 1844 by the Health of Towns Commission (England):

"As houses are built, and neighborhoods become more crowded, the pollution of springs (and wells should be added) by the permeation of matter from cess-pools becomes greater." And though the cess-pools may be deepened, and even cemented, this pollution of soil and water cannot be wholly overcome.

The first report of the Rivers Pollution Commission (English), 1868, contains some analyses of such well-water. In the case of a very deep well, known as Bevington Bush Well, at Liverpool, in "100,000 parts of water there were 86.7 parts of solid impurities, containing 12.61 parts of chlorine and 8.721 parts of combined nitrogen, of which 8.678 parts were in the form of nitrates and nitrites," which is strong evidence of "previous sewage contamination." The amount of the pollution of this water is clearly given in the following statement made in the report:

"Since its descent to the earth as rain, 100,000 pounds of the water had been contaminated with refuse animal matter equivalent to that contained in 86,510 pounds of average London sewage."

The above example shows that even the great depth of a well does not prevent its being contaminated in this way; though it does tend to show that there is a greater chance for the oxidation of the organic matters in percolating to a depth than to a shallow well. The report gives, as a general conclusion about deep well-water, that "when the well is at a distance from thickly-inhabited places, the quality of the water is generally excellent, but as the population around it increases, the water gradually becomes mixed with a larger and increasing proportion of excremental soakage."

Several interesting examples of the pollution of well-water by excrementitious matters are given in the third report of the same commission. Such water is there described as "the bright and sparkling, but often dangerous, beverage drawn from shallow wells, sunk into ground, reeking with filth and excrementitious matters." Thus the water from a well at the Blue House School in Frome, "contained unoxidized sewage matters, besides exhibiting a very large anterior pollution of the same kind."

Of the water from a well in Durham (England), described as one of

the best, it is said that "this water, though clear and sparkling, is shown by our analysis to be little else but the percolations from sewers and cess-pits: 100,000 pounds of it contain the inorganic remains of as much excrementitious matter as is present in 62.360 pounds of London sewage, whilst the large proportion of chlorine, which it contains, shows that a good deal of urine mixes with it."

Of the water from the wells in Whitney, varying from a depth of six to fifteen feet, it is said that "the water from these wells is frightfully polluted and entirely unfit for human consumption; one of them which we have analytically examined, is supplied chiefly from percolations from sewers and cess-pools, and contains a large portion of unoxidized sewage matter, besides ammonia from urine." From these instances, it is very plain that well and spring water is dangerously polluted by storing excrementitious and other filth matters upon or in the adjacent soil. This could not be so unless the soil was first contaminated by these elements, since the water takes its foreign and impure substances from the soil as it percolates through it, having fallen to the earth in rain as a pure and wholesome beverage.

That impure soil makes impure air, there is no more question. We, therefore, have clear and positive proof that the deposition and accumulation of excremental and other domestic filth upon or within the soil about our dwellings, is fraught with great dangers, and it is a positive and infallible cause of diseases, epidemics and premature deaths, when produced in any congregation of dwellings, whether it be village, town or city. Such matters should be removed to points outside the community without any delay, regardless of cost. \* \* \* \*

The various methods by which excremental and other domestic filth is removed from within communities, has been classified under three (3) systems, viz.: 1st. Direct removal: 2d. Pneumatic; 3d. Water carriage. The first is generally applied to excremental matters only; the second to faccal matters, and a minimum quantity of water: the third to excremental and all other liquid filth.

Under direct removal, are classed all the dry methods, such as the tub or pail systems—the "Eureka," "Goux," "Rochdale," "Manchester," etc. Dry closets—"Moule's," "Phillips'," "Taylor's," "Sanford's Carbon Closet," etc.

Of the pneumatic, the most important are the "Lieurnier," "Berlier," "LeMarquand," and the "Shone Pneumatic Ejector." The water carriage systems may be comprehensively classified as the combined and separate.

To effect a sanitary solution of the problem of filth removal, any system must comprehend a duty, which may be briefly stated, as follows: the immediate, rapid and complete removal of all domestic filth, such as waste water, water-closet, bath-room, bed-room, laundry and kitchen slops to some point or points without the town or city, where it cannot exercise a contaminating influence upon the health of the inhabitants.

In examining the various systems, I desire to determine to what extent they accomplish this object, and from which may be derived the greatest sanitary efficiency.

The Eureka tub plan was thoroughly experimented upon at Hyde, England. It consisted of the ordinary tub, containing a small quantity of disinfecting and deodorizing mixture, placed under the privy-seat for the reception of facal matters only, no slops being permitted to be added. The sizes of the tubs were adapted for several days' service; when becoming full, they were exchanged for a fresh tub. The full ones were covered by a tightly fitting lid and hauled in a close cart to a manure manufactory, where the contents were treated with more disinfectants, and ashes were added, making a manure of little value, containing only from one to two per cent, of ammonia.

The working of the plan was generally considered a very dangerous nuisance, and was soon abandoned. The plan did not embrace either of the three essentials of a sanitary plan, neither an immediate, rapid or complete removal of domestic filth.

The Goux system, otherwise known as the "Patent Absorbent Closet System," consisted of the ordinary tub or pail system, modified by lining the tubs with some sort of absorbent material.

The absorbent material was made from any sort of refuse animal or vegetable fibrous matters, mixed with a small percentage of sulphate of iron or lime sulphate. It is pressed closely to the bottom and sides of the tub by a suitable mould, leaving a cavity in the centre of the absorbent material. These tubs are designed as receptacles for excremental and bed-room slops only, and are to be removed weekly or twice a week. In practice, this plan has been found to be of but little use. The absorptive capacity is very soon exceeded, and the tub soon becomes the simple pail method, the only accomplishment being the prevention of soil pollution, with no regard for the purity of the air surrounding the tubs. The distinguishing feature of the Rochdale system is the provision of a receptacle for a disinfecting fluid, so that it can be applied to each deposition of faces and urine. These tubs are to be emptied weekly or semi-weekly.

In the Manchester system, a receptacle for ashes is provided, so that the ashes can be immediately applied to the dejecta, acting as an absorbent and as an arrester of decomposition. The ashes must be applied by hand, after the style of the Hebrew children, with the paddle, under the Mosaic dispensation.

I have but simply described these modified pail systems, as I think a popular acquaintance with their details to be of little value. Wherever they are used, the natural tendency will be to harbor the filth in the community for a long time; at least, until the receptacles are full and running over, and as long as there is an absence of unpleasant odor. It

is so well determined that any method of retaining filth within the neighborhood, that it would seem a dangerous practice to thus encourage this retention.

I am rather of the opinion that the common pail or tub closet for the deposition of excremental matters is even preferable, as their infallible effect upon the olfactory nerves serves as a constant reminder of their danger and of the necessity for frequent removal. It may be freely asserted that any pail system, without embracing daily removal and thorough cleansing and disinfecting of the receptacles, is an extremely dangerous and remitigated nuisance. "Moreover, this very frequent collection of filth by hand from houses, and its removal almost necessarily under the eye and nose of the household, is universally condemned by our domestic habits as nasty and offensive." The pail system can never become any success, either from an economic or sanitary standpoint. It fails to accomplish either of the three requisites of a sanitary solution of the filth-removal problem. It is neither immediate, rapid nor complete.

### DRY-CLOSET SYSTEMS.

While the dry-closet systems likewise fail as a sanitary solution of filth-removal, they are entitled to somewhat more consideration, since they, in a great measure, overcome the dangers of the pail or tub systems, and may be said to have a conditional adaptability of some value. That they do, in fact, serve as a very valuable method for villages and very small towns, I shall attempt to demonstrate.

The principle upon which these systems are operated, is that ashes, charcoal, and some sorts of dry, pulverized earth, have extensive properties as deodorants, disinfectants, and absorbents of excremental matters. It proposes to directly apply one of these substances immediately upon the excremental matters. As stated above, however, it disregards any disposal of "slops" and other household wastes. The systematic application of these properties of dry earth has been effected by some mechanical applications, introduced by Mr. Moule, and designated as the Moule system. All other systems are but modifications of the essential features contained in the Moule system, hence a description of this will quite comprehensively embrace the whole dry-closet system. Quoting from the prospectus of the Moule's Patent Earth Closet Company, we have this description of the system: "It is founded on the fact of the deodorizing power of earth, a given quantity of dry earth destroying all smell, and entirely preventing noxious vapors and other discomforts. The practical application of this power consists in a reservoir for containing dry earth, and an apparatus for measuring and delivering the requisite quantity, so as to deal with every operation in detail." The essential features of this system, then, would seem to be,

that the earth should be dry, and that each feecal deposition should be at once covered with a sufficient quantity of dry earth. The application of the dry earth may be done mechanically or by the hand; the mechanical arrangements, however, seem never to have applied this to the dejecta in a completely satisfactory manner. It would seem likewise difficult to apply it by hand, so that the entire dejects would be covered to the requisite depth, without a large quantity of soil is used, and as the supply of the soil, even in the necessary quantity, is the expensive part of the system, this becomes a formidable objection. The earth or ashes for this purpose is stored generally in a reservoir, built into the back part of the closet, and the requisite quantity is applied to each stool. By a chemical action of the dry earth, the complete disintegration of the fæcal matters takes place and no excremental matter can hardly be detected in the mixture, except by a slight odor that arises therefrom. An accumulation of several weeks is the general custom, and then the mixture is removed and dried and used again, and perhaps again as dry earth; while the substance still has great absorbent properties, it can hardly be considered a safe custom to repeat the use of the same soil without having first given it an opportunity of purifying itself by promoting vegetable growth.

The dry-earth system has been operated in many military camps, schools, colleges, hospitals and prisons with varied success. Wherever it has proved a failure, or caused any nuisance or disease, it may be safely asserted that it was due, not to the system, but to the improper workings of the system, such as a too limited supply of earth, or improper mechanical application. The great drawback to its use has been the enormous quantity of earth to be supplied, and the difficulty in obtaining earth suitable for this purpose. The most suitable soil is rich garden mold; following this in order of merit, is peaty soils, black cotton soils, clays, etc.; the poorest is sand.

The quantity of soil determined by practice to be sufficient to remove all smell from an average adult stool, varies from  $1\frac{1}{2}$  to  $2\frac{1}{2}$  pounds, according to the nature of the soil used, and  $2\frac{1}{2}$  pounds of prepared proper soil is recessary for each use of the urinal. Provision should be made for three (3) uses of the urinal per twenty-four (24) hours, making a total per adult of  $8\frac{a}{2}$  pounds daily. It would, therefore, require for a mixed population of adults and children, such as is found in a town or village,  $6\frac{a}{2}$  pounds, per person per day, a total per 1,000 population of 6,375 pounds, or a total of 2,328,468 pounds, or 1,164 tons per year, and this, together with the ordure to be removed, would amount to 1,424 tons, making the total transportation per annum per 1,000 persons, 2,588 tons. The cost of this system may be estimated as follows: To dry, pulverize, haul, distribute, collect and haul away, could hardly cost less than \$2.00 per ton, or \$2,848; the resultant product, after being made into a poudrette, might be sold for 50 cents per ton, reducing the cost to

\$2,136 per annum per 1,000 persons. Now, applying this to a town of 10,000 inhabitants, there would be required 11,640 tons of earth per annum, and a cost of \$21,360, showing clearly the impracticability of operating the system in any but very small communities or detached public institutions.

In very small and sparsely populated communities, where each household could be induced to prepare its own dry earth, and utilize the resultant upon their garden, the cost would be reduced to a minimum, and give a service which would be a large improvement upon the cess-pool or pail methods.

Besides the impracticability of this system for larger towns, the service it gives is but trifling as compared with the water-carriage system. For every pound of human excreta treated by this dry-earth method, it is estimated that there is 190 pounds of other fluid refuse, of which it is likewise essential that it be removed, and which is removed by the water-carriage system. We have, then, when applied to large communities, a system at greatly increased cost, but giving only  $\frac{1}{191}$  part of the service which is essential, and which is given by the water-carriage system; and yet, though this system lacks all the sanitary requirements of sewerage disposal, it is likely the best that can be adopted, when there cannot be obtained sufficient water for the water-carriage system.

To close the discussion of the conservancy systems, I will quote from an authority which must, indeed, carry conviction, it being probably the best authority that can be found—the Committee of the British Association on the Treatment and Utilization of Sewage: "All conservancy plans, including midden-heap and cess-pool systems, pail closets, dry-ash and dry-earth closets, etc., are quite incompetent, as the solution of the general questions of the removal of the refuse matters of a population. Such plans deal only with a small part of the liquid measure; towns which resort to one of them require, therefore, to be sewered. Such plans, moreover, all violate one of the most important of sanitary laws. which is, that all refuse matters which are liable to become injurious to health should be removed instantly and dealt with afterwards. With all these plans, it is an obvious advantage on the score of economy to keep the refuse about the premises as long as possible; and the use of deodorants of various sorts, or even of disinfectants, proves that this is the case, and that these systems all depend upon a fallacious principle. They should, therefore, be discouraged as much as possible, and only resorted to as temporary expedients, or with small populations, under exceptional circumstances."

# PNEUMATIC SYSTEMS.

The Pneumatic systems which I have named above have been successfully operated in several cities abroad and have proved themselves

to be of good sanitary service and especially applicable to low-lying districts, and such places where sufficient grade for the water-carriage system cannot readily be obtained, and at places where the sewage must be pumped to be conveyed to a proper outfall.

The distinguishing feature of these systems is, that the sewage is transported by air instead of by water. The pipes of this system are sealed, air-tight, and may be laid regardless of grade (except in the Shone system). By a central pumping station the air is exhausted from them, causing a rapid flowing in of external air through the filth receptacles to which they are attached. This sudden influx of air carries the sewage before it at a great velocity until it is all collected and disposed of. The objections that may validly be made to this system are the excessive cost and the improbability of thorough cleansing of the pipes by the passage of air through them. Inasmuch as we have not a city in our State which would probably have to resort to this method, I will forego a more detailed description of it and pass on to the

### WATER-CARRIAGE SYSTEM.

Water, being itself the great scavenger of nature, cleansing our bodies, our clothes, our homes, our food and cooking utensils, it is, in fact, the natural agent of all cleanliness. When it has performed this service then it becomes itself foul and loaded with various impurities, and is no longer in a condition fit for the uses of our homes, and is a great source of danger to health if permitted to remain about our habitations. Consequently, it should be gotten rid of at once in the most expeditious manner. In getting rid of this waste water, it is made, by the aid of gravity, the carrier of excrementitious matter and all domestic filth. We have, then, a method effecting the immediate, rapid and complete removal of domestic filth by an agency which, being itself an oxidizer, checks the putrefaction until it is removed beyond a point of contaminating influence. This agent being water, this method is very properly known as the water-carriage system.

By the proper application of the laws governing the flow of water in pipes, and by the proper regard for known features concerning the flow of sewage through pipes, this system is made to solve, in the greatest sanitary degree, the problem of filth-removal. In proof of this statement, we have the many cases of death-rate reduction—some mentioned but many others omitted in this paper—due to sanitary measures, all have been effected where the water-carriage system has been operated. Indeed, it could not be otherwise, for the principle is oviously the correct one, causing, as it does, the *immediate*, rapid and complete removal of all deleterious substances. It does not permit filth to be harbored and experimented with upon the premises, nor to remain and pollute the air, water and soil immediately surrounding our dwellings. It emphatically

should, and does, first remove the dangerous excretal and other effete substances, to a point beyond the power of exerting deleterious influences, and permit experimenting and utilization schemes to be practiced afterwards. I do not mean to say that the manurial properties of sewage should not be utilized and returned to the soil, but it is unquestionably the proper order that it should first be harmlessly removed and rendered itself harmless. The evil should certainly first be overcome, even should it cause the sacrifice of some good.

In the preceding pages I have shown that the tendency and the practice of all the conservancy or dry systems is to retain the filth about the premises for a long time after having simply deodorized it by dry earth or ashes; that it is thereby rendered harmless is only a presumption, and its correctness has not been borne out by any evidence whatever. Since we know so little of the effect of dry earth upon the disease-germs developed by putrefying excretal matters, but know so well the evil effect of these germs upon the health and life of man, it must be freely admitted that any system of conservancy is based upon an unsafe and wrong principle.

The only safety lies in getting rid of these obnoxious agencies in the most expeditious manner, and this is admirably done by the water-carriage system, in the cheapest manner possible, by the simple aid of gravity. It has been determined in practice that it costs but one-tenth to convey by water and gravity of the cost by cart removal.

It may be objected that a water-carriage system of sewerage, connecting as it does all parts of the town or city by a vast net-work of underground channels, has a tendency to freely circulate evil effects from accumulations in the sewer, and consequent generation of deleterious gases. But this is not a valid objection, as it can only occur from faulty construction, and is not a fault of the system itself. In constructing a system of sewers, it is not simply necessary to dig ditches and drop in the pipes, fit the joints with a little cement, and pass on. Such haphazard work in anything will surely prevent successful operation, and the evil results following such a course as this cannot justly be attributed to the fault of the principle. It is the abuse of the good principle that produces the evil.

In practice we have two water-carriage systems of sewage, the "Separate System," and the "Combined System." Under the "Separate System" the sewers are small and designed to carry only such substances as come properly under the head of sewage, which may be defined as the liquid and feculent refuse from dwellings and their appurtenances, leaving the storm-water and surface drainage to be treated separately.

Under the "Combined System," storm-water, surface and subsoil drainage is also included. Before discussing the relative merits of the two, I will briefly formulate the essential features for fulfilling the sanitary functions of a sewerage system. It should convey all sewage

immediately and rapidly to the outfall, so that there can be no time for decomposition or generation of gases while passing through the sewer; to effect this, it should be of proper size and gradient, of smooth bore, and laid to true allignment and gradient. It should be so well ventilated that there would be a constant interchange of air from within and without the sewer, so that what gas, if any, might be generated, would be so diluted as to be practically harmless. It should be occasionally flushed, so that no accumulations which might adhere to the sewer from irregular flow would become sufficiently decomposed to generate sewer gas. It should be impervious to water and sewage throughout its length, to preserve the soil from sewage pollution. To recapitulate, the prime essentials of a sanitary sewerage are:

1st. Immediate, rapid and complete removal of sewage beyond the point of danger.

2d. It should prevent the accumulation of noxious gases by sufficient ventilation and proper construction.

3d. It should be susceptible to effectual flushing.

4th. It should be impervious. Any sewer deficient in either of these requisites is a foe to humanity, and should be at once either reconstructed or its use discontinued.

For the "Combined System" the sewers are necessarily made very large; they are usually constructed of brick and of various shapes. The preferable shape is ovoidal, with the smaller end down, as this form provides maximum velocity to the minimum flow. The brick is likely to be more or less rough and porous, causing retardation of flow, accumulations of shiny substances, and organic matters, and soil pollution. In time of severe rain, when the sewer is running full, or nearly full, the excretal matters being in suspension, are left adhering to the sides of the sewer and in the crevices at the joints, and this filth must remain there, decomposing and giving off noxious gases until an equally severe storm comes again to wash this down and deposit a fresh supply of this antidote of health, as the flow recedes.

With each heavy rainfall, there are various substances which pass the catch-basin and form deposits on the bottom of the sewer, causing accumulating obstacles to the flow. By these obstructions, the sewage forms itself into innumerable cess-pools, which, in the dry-weather flow, is unmolested in its natural development of sewer gas and bacteria, jeopardizing the health and life of every inmate in each house with which the sewer is connected. It should be borne in mind that the native heath of bacteria is in just such dark and damp places as this affords. It is the great amount of sewer gas that is thus generated, which makes it next to impossible to sufficiently ventilate such sewers. They can be ventilated, and much external air introduced into the sewer, but not in sufficient quantity to overcome or purify the great volume of gas that accumulates in such sewers. A very great and

extremely popular objection to the combined system is, the great cost of providing such large sewers for carrying the storm-water to a distant point on account of its contamination when mixed with excrementitions matters, whereas, if it were not so polluted, it could, in most cases, at least, be readily turned into the natural channels and safely left to care for itself.

From what is above set forth, it may be reasonably claimed that neither of the essentials named above can be secured by the "Combined System."

On the other hand, each of these essential features can be secured and all these objections overcome by the "Separate System." when designed and constructed with proper engineering skill, under the guidance and direction of, and with due appreciation for, the sanitary requirements and the laws of sanitary science. There are many and divers objections to the "Combined System," both from an economic and a sanitary stand-point, which I might discuss, but I trust that enough is said to convince my readers that it is a radically wrong plan to turn excretal filth into the storm-water sewers. If storm sewers must be built, it will add but comparatively little to the expense to construct at the same time a system of impervious pipe sewers from the domestic filth only.

# SEPARATE SYSTEM.

By a skillful application of the principles of the "Separate System," the solution of the filth-removal problem is greatly simplified. Instead of planning the sewers for the maximum of extremely variable flow, as in the "Combined System," with an enforced disregard for the dryweather or sewage flow, we deal directly with this flow, with a comparative certainty as to its amount, which, as compared with the rainwater flow, is quite regular. It remains, then, but to determine the quantity of sewage which the system will be required to convey, and the proper adjustment of the size, form and kind of sewer proportionate to this service, to secure immediate, rapid and complete removal. Having secured this, each of the other sanitary requirements are but matters of proper design and construction. That the sanitary features and health-preserving efficiency of a system of sewers has been effected by the "Separate System" to a degree closely approximating perfection, has been in many cases demonstrated, both in this country and in Europe, where the system has been put into operation under a studied appreciation of the sanitary requirements and skilled direction.

The essential feature of this system is, that the sewers shall be small, or of a size just sufficient for the service which it is designed to perform. It has been determined that a small quantity of any fluid, when passing through a large channel or conduit, will have a sluggish flow and a total incapacity of removing obstacles in its path; but this same quantity,

when contracted in a small or suitable conduit, flows with a rapid and accelerated velocity, with effectual scouring properties, removing any ordinary obstacles that may be in its path. Hence it is that the small sewers of the "Separate System" give a service vastly superior to those of the "Combined."

To illustrate this: It has been determined that a six (6) inch pipe running half full of sewage, with a grade of 1 in 40, will give a velocity of 3 feet per second, while the same quantity of sewage passes through a twelve (12) inch pipe with the same grade, will have a velocity of but 2 feet per second. Again, a 12-inch sewer, flowing half full, with a grade of 1 in 200, will give a velocity of 3½ feet per second, a thoroughly self-cleansing velocity, while the same quantity of sewage, flowing through a 36-inch sewer, with the same grade, will give a velocity of 1½ feet per second, which is not a self-cleansing velocity.

The popular demand for large sewers is almost wholly founded upon fallacy. There has been, to some extent, a strong demand on the part of the laity and board of town commissioners that the sewers should be made "plenty big enough and some to spare," with the result that the sewer falls far short of fulfilling the sanitary demands, and the accumulations therein encouraged and effected make a serious item of expense in their removal. The popular demand regarding sewers should be that they be made small enough to perform the required service in an economic and sanitary manner. In a small sized, properly laid sewer, and properly adjusted to the required service, stoppages will rarely, if ever, occur, while, if it were replaced by a large sewer, stoppages will be constantly occurring, causing a large cost of maintenance and seriously interfering with the sanitary service which it is sought to obtain.

It has been so thoroughly demonstrated by actual experiment, that there can be no further question as to the efficiency of small pipe sewers. A system of pipe sewers, properly adjusted and not too large for the work to perform, with proper grades and proper construction in all its parts, will immediately, rapidly and completely remove the domestic filth from without the town to a safe outfall, before any decomposition can take place, and while the sewage is comparatively innocuous and harmless. Not the least recommendation of the "Separate System" is the wide application to which it is adapted. Its cost being but onefifth or one sixth of the "Combined System," the smaller sized cities, such as we have in North Carolina, which would be debarred from the advantages of sewerage by the great cost of the "Combined System," can have all the benefits of the removal of domestic filth before the soil has become saturated and polluted by its habitual accumulation, by the application of the "Separate System," and at a comparatively small expenditure.

The scope of this paper will not permit going into the details of sewerage plans and construction. But I desire to briefly notice certain general principles, features and facts connected with sanitary design and construction of a sewerage system, which should be well known and practiced, especially by boards of city commissioners, when the subject of sewerage is brought up for discussion.

### PLANS.

Whether it is intended to construct a system of sewerage for the entire town or city, or to construct sewers only for the most thickly populated districts or streets, the first thing to be done is to have a complete system designed, embracing the entire municipality and the natural drainage area contiguous thereto. Having the design for the system as a whole. such parts as are desired may be constructed at once without interfering with the future construction. This section, being a part of a final whole, is perfectly adjusted to the future demands upon, and the future extensions from it. It is a permanent fixture, and unlike sewers which are so frequently built by piecemeal, and without any order as to harmonious connections, it will not have to be torn up and reconstructed when it is desired to sewer the remaining portions of the town or city. But the system may be extended as required, and from the inception to the completion the system will be adapted to all its parts, and continually serve as a properly adjusted part of the development into an harmonious whole, each part being properly adapted to the service which it is intended to perform in securing the sanitary benefits of a properly constructed system of sewerage.

The importance of this point cannot be overestimated, for it must be clearly seen that in a comprehensive system, all the parts must be in intimate relation to each other, and in fact they will be largely interdependent for thorough and successful service of the system, and unless it is designed as a whole, this regulation of the parts cannot afterward be obtained.

# MATERIAL AND FORM OF SEWERS.

The material to be used in the construction of sewers should be vitrified salt-glazed earthenware pipe, up to a size sufficient to discharge 5,000 gallons of sewage per minute, viz.: an egg-shaped sewer with diameters of 2 and 3 feet with a grade of 1 inch in 500.

This material being subjected to an intense heat to take the salt glaze, is very hard, durable, and impervious; the glazing protects the sewer from the disintegrating action of the acids common to sewage, and secures a smooth surface for the sewage flow, aiding the cleansing properties of the sewer. The form of these pipe sewers should be circular up to a diameter of eighteen (18) inches, and with some qualities

of pipe to twenty-four (24) inches. Circular form is preferable, as it better resists the resultant of the external and internal forces acting upon it, and because, in the manufacture of sewer pipe, it is the most economic and the truest in form.

The elliptical or egg-shaped sewers have much in their favor in that they secure the greatest cross-section of flow for the wetted perimeter or frictional surface, and for their greater ability to resist the vertical pressure upon them which is the greatest of the external forces. So, that for sewers laid at a great depth, they are preferable to the circular form. In the larger sizes especially, where the volume of flow is likely to be subject to great fluctuations, they are likewise preferable. Their form should be made by compounding circular arcs of three different radii: the smallest radius for the bottom, a larger one for the top and a still larger radius for the two sides. The relative lengths of the vertical and horizontal diameters varies in the practice of different authorities, but a safe preference is the vertical equal to  $1\frac{1}{2}$  times the horizontal diameter.

## SIZE OF SEWERS.

The size of the sewers in any system is dependent upon two factors, the volume of sewage and the grades obtainable. The chief objects to be obtained in regulating the size of sewers are, that they shall readily carry the maximum volume and secure a self-cleansing velocity. The velocity of flow is dependent upon the volume and rate of inclination. A small sized sewer must have a greater rate of inclination than a larger one to secure the same velocity, but the larger sewer must in turn have the same relative volume of sewage to its carrying capacity. Thus a ten (10) inch sewer flowing half full, to give a velocity of 4 feet per second must have a grade of 1 in 130, while a twelve (12) inch sewer will give the same velocity at a grade of 1 in 160, but it must be likewise flowing one-half full, i. e., the volume of discharge must be 1410 gallons per minute, almost one and one-half (11) times the volume necessary to secure the same velocity in the 10-inch sewer, which is 952 gallons per minute. Thus we see the need of the conscientious and painstaking performance of duty by the engineer in properly adjusting the size of the sewers of a system to the obtainable grades. The velocity necessary to secure self-cleansing properties has been determined by experiment and practice to be not less than 3 feet per second in sewer pipes of less than 12 inches diameter and not less than 2½ feet per second in pipes of 12 inches or greater diameter.

The minimum rates of inclination to secure this velocity is given by Latham as follows: a 4-inch house drain 1 in 90; a 6-inch sewer 1 in 140; a 10-inch sewer 1 in 230; a 12-inch sewer 1 in 450; a 15-inch sewer 1 in 550. But these figures presuppose the sewer to be flowing

one-half (‡) full, but it is so frequent that the flow will be somewhat less than this, that it is desirable when working to minimum grades to figure for a greater velocity when flowing one-half (½) full in order to secure a self-cleansing velocity for the minimum flow. This velocity is taken at 4 feet per second for sewers of less than 12 inches diameter and at 3½ feet for 12 inches and greater diameter in determining the following desirable minimum gradients:

Diamete	r 4	inches,	gradient	1	in	53
44	6	6.6	6.6	1	4.4	80
4.4	8	6.6	6.6	1	4.6	105
66	10	4.6	4.4	1	6.6	133
44	12	6.6	4+	1	4.4	238
6.	15	6 %	4.4	1	4.6	300
6.6	18		**	1	6.6	350

I have already referred to the fallacious popular demand for large sewers, so I deem it proper to show the actual carrying capacity of various size pipe sewers, when properly constructed, believing that the municipal authorities who would intelligently act upon a sewerage project will find the information of great value and assistance. In preparing the following tabulated statements I will assume a quantity of 60 gallons of sewage per capita per diem, one-half to flow off in eight (8) hours, the sewers to flow one-half full, which is a liberal assumption. I will assume also the above minimum gradients and deduce the following data of the actual carrying capacity of properly constructed pipe sewers:

Diameter of	Rate of	Gallons discharged	Equivalent
Sewer.	Inclination.	per hour.	Population.
4 inches. 6 " 8 " 10 " 12 " 15 " 18 "	1 in 53	4,716	1,258
	1 ··· 80	10,539	2,812
	1 ··· 105	19,003	5,068
	1 ··· 133	29,385	7,836
	1 ··· 238	34,402	9,174
	1 ··· 300	52,280	13,941
	1 ··· 350	77,917	20,778

Thus we see that a four (4) inch drain is amply sufficient for dwellings and good sized hotels, boarding houses, schools, and public institutions, and an eight (8) inch pipe is proper for many street mains.

Sewers that are unnecessarily large are not only a useless expenditure of money, but they seriously deteriorate the sanitary service. Ill-planned sewers of excessive size frequently serve to carry off the sewage when

the poor construction would cause stoppages in sewers of the proper size. But such *carry off* of the sewage is not the service that is contemplated in this paper; it is insanitary and extremely dangerous. It cannot be too often repeated that ill-planned and improperly constructed sewers are dangerous things to have about, and, in most cases, become worse than no sewers at all. "Eternal vigilance," both in design and construction, is the price of the full measure of sanitary service of a sewerage system.

## FLUSHING AND VENTILATION.

These are classed together, as the object to be attained by each is the same, viz.: to prevent the generation and dangerous accumulation of sewer gas. There would be but little or no danger of this, in a well constructed system, removing the sewage rapidly to the outfall, if the sewers were always carrying the same volume. But as the flow is quite variable for different days and for different hours of the same day, there is a possibility of slight generation of sewer gas by the small particles and slimy matters adhering to the sides of the pipes, which would prol ably accumulate to dangerous proportions were no provision made to check this accumulation. This danger is, however, very effectually overcome by flushing and ventilation.

By flushing is obtained a periodic washing of the sewer of any particles that may be held in check from any cause. It is effected best by *flush tanks*, which discharge automatically at regular intervals with a great velocity and consequent chansing power.

In a well designed and constructed system the periods of flushing may safely be from 24 to 36 hours apart, but in other cases it may become necessary to flush once or twice each day.

The quantity of the flush should be sufficient to secure a depth of flow slightly greater than that of the maximum volume of sewage.

A flushing apparatus should be placed at the head of each main and lateral sewer, and in some cases, at intervals along long lines of mains. Extensive systems of sewers should be divided into *flushing districts*, the districts to be flushed consecutively, beginning at the head of the system.

. It will be evident that by such systematic and thorough cleansing the generation or accumulation of any great volume of sewer gas is prevented. The slight quantity which is in practice generally found to exist in sewers is innoccuously disposed of by proper provision for rentilation.

This consists of open shafts, connecting the sewer with the external air, causing a constant interchange and circulation between the atmospheric and sewer air. The sewer air is thereby diluted to a harmless degree and left free to maintain a uniform tension, whether the flow of

sewage be warm or cold, great or small, thereby preventing its power to force the trap connections of houses with which the sewer may be connected.

It is desirable that means of access to and inspection of all the parts of a sewer be provided by the construction of man-holes and lump-holes at short intervals along its course, and they may be constructed so as to serve in a dual capacity, and act as ventilating shafts, thereby greatly assisting to obtain the desired ventilation.

## DEPTH TO WHICH SEWERS SHOULD BE LAID.

This is a local consideration, dependent upon the nature of the soil and other characteristics of the locality to be sewered. They should, in all cases, be at sufficient depth to secure the proper gradient of house drains to the rear of the dwellings along their course, so that for sites of great irregularity of contour they should be laid at a greater depth than for localities of a gently rolling or level surface.

Since no branch from a sewer should be made by a vertical connection, it will be seen that an unnecessary depth of the sewers is a useless additional cost, both to the main sewers and to the house connections, so that the minimum allowable depth of sewers should be carefully determined according to the surrounding conditions.

Upon this subject there is a paragraph contained in my report upon the sewerage of the city of Raleigh, which, I think, will bear repetition here, as follows:

"In determining the minimum depth to which the sewers shall be laid, I have departed from the general custom of laving the sewers to such depth as to drain cellars, and have no provision for cellar service. The advantages to be derived from cellar service in sewer pipes is the drainage of wet or flooded cellars in wet weather, and permitting the placing of hopper-closets in damp, dark, out-of-the-way places in cellars. While these may be advantages, the first, at least, they are attended by very great disadvantages and objections. The sewers, in many cases, must be laid to nearly twice the depth to provide cellar service-more than doubling the cost of construction. The limited extent to which cellars are liable to be flooded in this city, I do not think would justify such increased expenditure. The great objection, however, to such service—and I deem it a very serious one—is the provision and encouragement that it gives for placing hopper-closets in cellars. In such a climate as this, such a practice would be extremely dangerous. Closets, to be maintained healthfully, must have an abundance of the great purifying elements-sunlight and fresh air. In the dark corners of cellars they can have neither of these, and in the warm season (considering human carelessness) I see but little to prevent them from becoming very hot-beds of disease germs—a constant menace not only to those persons immediately around them, but to the entire city. I have, therefore, designed that the minimum depth of the sewers should be just sufficient to be below all water and gas pipes, beyond a possibility of contaminating the water service. Such depth I consider to be six (6) feet below the street surface.

We might permit of cellar service by the sewers in the strictly business portion of the city, where first floor and cellar space is very valuable, in such cases as the Sewerage Committee should deem urgently desirable, but with the greatest restrictions thrown around their use, and the care of and frequent inspection of closet connections."

In a city or town where cellars are liable to be frequently flooded, provision should be made for overcoming it, as it is very detrimental to the health of the community. Rather than place the sewers to a great depth for cellar connections, however, it will be found more economic and of much greater sanitary service to lay a pervious subsoil drain beneath the sewers at sufficient depth to lower the water level of the soil below the deepest cellars. In localities where the water level is high, the soil retentive and wet, and where phthisis is a prevalent disease, a system of subsoil drains should be constructed in conjunction with the sewerage system. The drains may be either beneath or beside the sewers in the same trench, thus drying the subsoil, which has been found in every case to greatly decrease the prevalence of this sickness.

In the foregoing pages I have consumed as much space as the occasion of this paper will permit, and perhaps more than my readers may enjoy, yet much that should be said is but only imperfectly and incompletely alluded to.

I have, however, endeavored to demonstrate the advantages of practicing sanitary measures and the dangers arising from their disregard. I have shown that the essentials are the provisions for the maintenance of "pure air, pure water and pure soil" in and about our homes. It has also been made evident that the first provisions looking to this end are a pure and wholesome supply of water and the construction of a sanitary system of sewerage. Having these as a foundation, a complete and perfect system of sanitation easily becomes a reality; without these prime essentials no amount of raking and scraping and garbage-collection can be developed into an effectual sanitary service. With these provisions, other sanitary measures may be carried out to perfection and preventable sickness and premature death may be wholly eliminated from the list of the results of moral criminality.

That what has been said in this paper may conduce, to some extent, to the consummation of this greatly-to-be-desired end, has been the earnest wish of the writer throughout its preparation.

Winston, N. C., January 10, 1889.

# THE PUBLIC WATER SUPPLY OF TOWNS AND CITIES IN NORTH CAROLINA.

By H. T. Bahnson, M. D., Salem, N. C.

For much of the matter of the following pages the writer does not desire to claim originality. It is largely a collation of the most pertinent facts established by the researches of eminent sanitary scientists.

The necessity of a wholesome water-supply for our growing towns is rapidly increasing in importance, and this paper is written with a view to point out imperfections, if any exist, in such supplies as are already instituted, and to furnish data which may serve to prevent similar and perhaps graver errors in future undertakings of this kind.

If we study the history of modern towns we will be struck by the fact that a public water supply has generally followed a more or less destructive conflagration. The resulting loss of property has induced property-owners to take precautions against such calamities in the future. The average man will freely tax himself to insure the safety of his house and worldly goods, while he intrusts the lives and health of himself and family to the mercy of Providence. If Providence will preserve from disease and death, why will He not protect from fire? Which is the worse misfortune, to have a house burned down, or to see wife and children die of a preventable disease?

Probably these questions have not been asked: at all events, the prime object of a water supply seems to be the protection of property from fire. A town pays out of its revenues a rental upon the fire hydrants and the householder stints his family in the use of water, with an anxious eye to his water-tax.

The old heathen did better, as is shown by the remains of their magnificent acqueducts and public fountains and baths. Their water was used for cleanliness and the preservation of health—not to gorge the insatiable maw of that modern municipal toy, the steam fire-engine. Perhaps they lost more buildings, but they saved more lives.

Greek and Roman civilization looked to the health and bodily development of the citizen. Their religion consisted of the defication of heroes and the apotheosis of superior physical attributes. In this religion ablutions for the purification and invigoration of the body of the worshippers bore a prominent part. In the revolt against Pagan rites, which was brought about by Christianity, water was put under the ban because of the importance attaching to it in the heathen ceremonial. Self-abnegation and mortifying of the flesh took the place of personal cleanliness and attention to physical culture. Personal nastiness became the step-

ping-stone to canonization, and the odor of sanctity was no figure of speech. To the mind of such devotees, disease was of Divine origin, and plagues and pestilences were submitted to with resignation. An effort to prevent such visitations would have been regarded sacrilegious.

Out of this quagmire of superstition and fanatical perversion of Christian tenets the civilized world only gradually emerged after the lapse of centuries. Dogmatism and cant have been relegated to the limbo of the Dark Ages, where they originated, and "pure religion and undefiled" again demands a clean body as the abode of a pure heart. Science, the handmaid of religion, has displaced empiricism in medicine, and inaugurated the warfare upon filth as the cause of disease, which is the crowning glory of this age of progress and enlightenment. Most disease can be prevented, some alleviated, and only a few cured. The prevention, therefore, rather than the cure of disease, is the goal of modern medical ambition.

The laws of life and health are daily becoming more clearly known and easier to comprehend, and it is the duty of the physician and sanitarian to bring them to the knowledge of the authorities and the public. But alas! the traditions and the prejudices of centuries are hard to eradicate, and although the ear of this generation can be reached by the propaganda of sanitation, the truths of its teaching usually require severe lessons to impress them upon the hearts and lives of a people. In spite of discouragements from wilful ignorance, or worse still, fatalistic indifference, modern sanitary science preaches and fights its crusade for the preservation of health and the prolonging of life, with confidence inspired by a righteous cause and the assurance of a final victory.

Water, from the earliest times, has been regarded as the symbol of purity. The sparkling dew drop, the refreshing rain, the bubbling spring, the dancing rivulet, the pellucid stream or lake, the deep, cold well, the crystal snow, the glass-like ice, to the natural eye present the embodiment of purity and healthfulness. It may be transparent and sparkling, grateful and refreshing, and yet, this apparently pure, health-giving water has carried in ages past, and is to-day carrying, disease and death to myriads of the human race. Modern science, with ruthless hands, tears away the veil which hides from our unaided eye the workings of nature's laboratory, and dispels our fondest illusions. It teaches us that "the moss-covered bucket" is a euphemism for malaria-breeding algae, and "the life-giving element" we so eagerly quaff may be foul with pollution from stable and privy and swarming with death-dealing microbes.

Absolutely pure water does not exist in nature. Even the vapor in the atmosphere which surrounds our earth is laden with impurities and rich in minute organic life. The germs of the latter, owing to their great volatility, are carried by the wind to high altitudes and long distances; and, entangled in the crystals of snow, or gathered by the globules of rain, are precipitated upon the earth's surface. The red snow of Greenland, the wonder of our school days' geography, derives its color from microscopic vegetable spores, and the so-called "mountain fever" has been traced to a similar origin, viz.: vegetable spores from the melting snow, carried into the springs and other sources of water supply.

But it is upon the surface of the earth, and the few feet of loose soil which compose its crust, that we find the principal sources of water. pollution. Dead and decaying animal and vegetable matter give life and sustenance to innumerable minute organisms, which we call microbes. Some of these are poisonous in their influence, while others serve as scavengers by promoting fermentation and putrefaction, resolving organic matter into its chemical constituents and fitting it to be absorbed by the radicles of growing vegetation. Saturated with decaying organic matter and the products of its decomposition, the water not needed for vegetable growth either evaporates from the earth's surface or passes into an adjoining stream, or percolates into the deeper recesses of the earth, until it is arrested by some impermeable stratum, from the edge of (or a seam in) which it bursts forth again in the shape of a spring. During its course through the deeper layers of the earth, it is constantly undergoing chemical and biological influences. The products of decomposition are thereby further resolved or eliminated by filtration, and the water appears again at the surface of the earth, nearly or altogether free from organic matter. Its parity in this particular depends, of course, upon the depth and character of the filtering material through which it has percolated. During its passage it dissolves and carries with it more or less, according to solubility, of the earthy and mineral matters which it encounters. Springs not being always accessible or of sufficient capacity, it becomes necessary to utilize the water from running streams and lakes or sink wells to the water-bearing stratum.

A spring or well deriving its water from a wooded or grass-covered area, protected from surface drainage and not holding in solution an excess of mineral or earthy salts, affords a healthful and perfectly satisfactory water-supply. Except in periods of great drought, the small amount of its organic and mineral ingredients would be no disadvantage, but only serve to make the water refreshing and palatable. But these desirable sources of water-supply can only exist in uninhabited, or at most, sparsely settled sections of country.

Surface drainage from uncultivated ground, especially if this be of a marshy character, contains a large amount of vegetable matter, from the decomposition of which, under certain conditions of soil and temperature, is developed the malarial poison. It is positively demonstrated that this poison is eliminated from water by filtration through the soil, and no malarial disease can be traced to a well or spring untainted by a

direct inflow from the surface. Nature's process may be successfully imitated, and artificial filtration, properly conducted, affords protection against malarial poison in drinking water.

As a country is settled, however, we have other and more terrible foes to encounter, in the effort to maintain the wholesomeness of our water supply. The rotting garbage which litters our streets and yards, laundry and kitchen slops and waste, the pig-sty and barn-yard, and above all, the privy, furnish pabulum for the development of the germs of what are known as zomotic and filth diseases. Their germs once developed, permeate the soil, and it is only a question of time when, the earth's filtering power being incapable of arresting them, they invade our sources of water supply, and produce sickness and death. Amongst these diseases are the various forms of diarrhea and dysentery.

Common diarrhoea, as distinguished from its specific forms, e. g., cholera, occurs generally whenever drinking water is sufficiently laden with impurities to cause irritation of the alimentary mucous tract. In periods of drought and consequent supersaturation with impurities of the scanty water supply, diarrhoea and dysentery are especially prevalent and attended with great mortality amongst children and the aged and infirm. That in most cases, diarrhoeas, sporadic and epidemic, are due to a specific poison, acting otherwise than as a simple irritant, is settled beyond a doubt; but this poisonous principle, almost certainly a germ, has not yet been definitely determined. In many cases of diarrhoea, occurring from the use of water, the pollution of the latter has been so great that its excess of organic matter could be determined by microscopical and chemical analysis, and quite frequently its odor and taste sufficed to condemn it as unfit for use.

Cholera is a specific diarrhoea. Originating along the water courses in India, where it is always endemic, its germs are carried by travel and commerce to all parts of the world. We know that it is especially transmissible by water, and the latter may be contaminated either directly by choleraic excreta, or by the absorption of the exceedingly volatile germs from the atmosphere. So rapid is their dissemination that neither natural nor artificial filtration can be depended upon during the prevalence of this virulent disease. In an epidemic of cholera, no water should be drunk which has not been thoroughly boiled, passed through a reliable filter, and kept in an air-tight vessel. Boiling destroys the germs of the cholera by coagulating the albuminoids. Filtration deprives it of these coagulated albuminoids, and restores its sapidity by replacing the air expelled in boiling. If it were possible to adopt generally the same precautions at all times, the cases of sickness and death caused by unwholesome water would be reduced to a minimum. Under the influence of a cholera scare, no expense, no sacrifice of comfort or convenience is thought too great to be rendered as a free-will offering at the shrine of this awe-inspiring Moloch. But cholera rarely visits our favored shores, and by a rigorous enforcement of quarantine regulations, we can entirely escape its ravages.

We read with horror of the desolation wrought by it a year ago in Italy and Spain; of cities decimated and abandoned by their terror-stricken inhabitants; of villages and whole districts depopulated, the living unable to care for the sick or bury the dead. We note with indignant amazement the squalor and filth, the unsanitary conditions which aided the dissemination and augmented the fatality of the pestilence, and, with Pharisaical complacency, we thank God that we are not as other men are.

We deliberately close our eyes to the fact that our country is constantly ravaged by diseases even more fatal, and quite as much due to filth as is cholera, for their origin and dissemination.

Foremost amongst these are diphtheria and typhoid fever. Both are produced by specific organic principles. Rotting garbage affords development to the germs of diphtheria, while the poison of typhoid fever has its origin in decomposing human excrement. The former is frequently, and the latter is almost invariably, conveyed into the system by drinking water. The deaths in this country every year from these two diseases outnumber by many times the severest epidemics of cholera or yellow fever. The latter, confined to a limited area, arrest the attention, while the former, on account of their widespread distribution, are regarded with equanimity, and submitted to as a matter of course. And yet, they are more easily prevented by us than either yellow fever or cholera. The latter diseases are of foreign importation, and a laxity of quarantine, for which we as individuals or communities, are not responsible, may bring one or both of them upon us. Diphtheria and typhoid fever are home productions—the legitimate fruits of our own filth. The parent who throws his child into the fire, the husband who shoots his wife, the man who slays his neighbor, is justly condemned as a murderer. In what respect does he differ from him who breeds a pestilence that kills his wife, and child, and neighbor?

It is possible to evade or contravene human law, but the laws of nature are immutable and inplacable; effect follows cause—crime brings punishment. The penalty may be delayed, but it is none the less certain. The foul drain, the reeking offal from kitchen and pig-sty, invite the waiting germ to breed the pestilence that throttles and suffocates our darling child, whose agonizing sufferings we are powerless to allay—whose piteous appeals for the help we cannot afford rend our bleeding hearts. The offending filth may be in our neighbor's premises, or on the public highway: this but shifts the responsibility, without mitigating the crime, or giving immunity from its penalty.

Diphtheria, as a distinct disease, was first described in 1835, as originating in the slums of Paris. Since that time, it has been recognized over the whole civilized world, and is justly regarded as the most fatal pesti-

lence of modern times. In the city of Brooklyn, the mortality during the past twelve months was nearly one thousand, and in other parts of the country it claims its victims in like or even greater proportion.

Its transmission by water-pollution is abundantly attested. There is no necessity to go outside of the State for evidence. In Winston and Salem not less than thirty sporadic cases have occurred during the past two years. All of these were in families using well water. The surroundings were most favorable for its development—garbage plentiful, and pig-sties numerous. In the houses of neighbors using water from the public supply not one case occurred. It frequently happens that diphtheria is prevalent on one ridge or water shed. In one case, under my observation, the disease in the course of years traveled about twenty miles along one ridge, taking the lives of over one hundred children, and, except by contagion, not affecting a single person on parallel ridges. The dreadful epidemics, ten to fifteen years ago, in Company Shops, Charlotte, Newbern and other places in the State, can only be accounted for by the general pollution of the wells.

Sanitary science teaches us that the virulence of diphtheria can be mitigated, and its germs prevented from propagation, by cleanliness in our premises and surroundings. In the city of Pullman, where sanitation is enforced by law, the disease is unknown. We know further. that it is highly contagious, spreading rapidly from the person and surroundings of the sick, and particularly from the body of the dead. Yet the dead body of the little victim is often left exposed to be gazed at by friends and kissed by relatives, the bedding and furniture of the sickroom placed in the yard to poison the atmosphere, and the sputa and dejecta of the patient thrown upon the ground to pollute the surrouding wells. Isolation of the sick, thorough disinfection, and prompt sealing up of the dead body will limit the contagion, and yet there is not a law on our statute books to enforce these simple and necessary regulations. Probably more than one thousand children in North Carolina are yearly sacrificed to this preventable disease by our indifference and stupidity. Shall the blood of these slaughtered innocents cry out from the ground

Typhoid fever is not a contagious disease like diphtheria. Its poison does not spread from the person and surroundings of the sick, and if several members of a family or community are stricken down by this disease, they do not contract it directly from one another. The poisonous germs are found only in the evacuations from the bowels of the sick. These, thrown upon the ground, or cast into the privy, multiply with amazing rapidity; and, washed by the rain into a stream, or percolating through the soil into a well or other source of water supply, spread the disease amongst those using the water. Water so polluted gives no evidence of its fatal properties. Neither by chemical nor by biological analysis can the presence of typhoid fever germs be detected with cer-

tainty. Natural filtration does not exclude them from a well, and it is unreasonable to hope that artificial filtration can do more. They resist the chemical and biological influences to which they are subjected in passing through the soil, are unaffected by frost, and retain their virulence indefinitely. The dejecta of a single patient, during the winter of 1884-85, were thrown out upon the frozen ground, and by the thaw in April were carried into the reservoir which supplied water to the village of Plymouth, Pennsylvania. In less than one month over seven hundred, and in 1-ss than three months twelve hundred people using the water were stricken down with the disease.

Typhoid fever respects neither age nor sex, and regards previous condition only in so far that the negro race is perhaps less liable than the white to its ravages. It flourishes alike in country and town. From the mountain to the sea-shore, wherever human excrement, directly or indirectly, finds access to drinking water, typhoid fever prevails. Exemption can be secured only by having passed through the disease—a second attack is very rarely observed. A neighborhood or community may for a long time escape a visitation, but sooner or later its time will come, unless the proper precautions are taken. An absentee returning home, a transient guest, a child from school, may at any time bring the disease from an infected locality. In these days of rapid and easy travel, such contingencies are of every-day occurrence.

In the absence of a registration law, we can only estimate the mortality from typhoid fever in North Carolina by a comparison with other States which have such registration. Giving ourselves the benefit of every advantage, we are forced to conclude that not less than five hundred of our citizens annually die from this disease. In the United States typhoid fever kills more than thirty thousand every year, and we suffer our share of the mortality. For each death we may count at least eight sick on an average eight weeks. The great majority of victims to typhoid fever are in beginning maturity—the most valuable and productive period of human life. Such a life is certainly worth \$1,000. Eight sick for each death means four thousand sick eight weeks each year, or an average of six hundred sick every day in the year. A low estimate of the loss of productiveness and the general and incidental expenses of sickness would be \$1 per day for each patient.

Let us summarize:-

Five hundred deaths at \$1,000	-\$500,000
Six hundred dollars per day for sickness, 365 days	219,000
And we have a total of	\$719,000

-a sum equal to the entire revenues of the State, ruthlessly squandered and literally wiped out of existence—taken from the resources of

our State and paid for the questionable privilege of mixing our own ordere with our drinking water.

These figures are appalling and may seem incredible, but let my reader examine his own family history and visit the neighboring grave-yards, and then make his own calculations. When he has accomplished this, I beg him to compute the anxiety, the sorrow and desolation—a task for which I confess myself entirely inadequate.

Other sources of water-pollution deserve more than the casual mention to which I limit myself. The blood and offal from slaughter-houses, the waste from manufacturing establishments, the refuse from saw and planning mills, should, for obvious reasons, not be allowed to rot upon the ground and be carried by storm-water into our streams. Sewage from paper-mills and tan-yards is especially objectionable; and the subsoil drainage from cemeteries is literally the draught of death.

Writers upon cholera in India ascribe its origin and virulence largely to the fact that the washing of clothes is carried on in the water which is used for drinking. How often do we see the washing of the family done at the well or on the bank of the spring? Need we wonder if such water is sometimes unwholesome?

The importance, nay, the vital necessity, for a pure water supply for our people, whether they are scattered over the country or aggregated in towns, must be conceded. As towns increase in population, the difficulty of procuring a wholesome water supply, and the dangers of its pollution, are correspondingly augmented.

It is asserted that a barrel of kerosene, poured into a hole ten feet in the ground, will contaminate all the wells in a radius of a quarter of a mile. Sooner or later, therefore, the poisonous products of decomposing filth must find their way into a well in proximity to a habitation and its out-houses. As population increases in a given area, so does the volume of garbage and filth and excrement. In addition to this, vegetation. which would otherwise assist in its disposal, decreases in inverse ratio to density of population. The bare ground of streets and vards becomes supersaturated with rotting refuse, which percolates through the subsoil into the wells. The germs of disease may not be in this pitcher full or that, but they will surely find us some day if we continue to use the water which contains them. A water-bed, or basin, cannot safely be used for concurrent purposes of water supply and the reception of offal. Sickness and death will follow as surely as the night succeeds the day. A new source of supply, therefore, must be sought, and this is the question that confronts every growing town.

It is fondly imagined by many that the purity of water can be determined by chemical or biological analysis. While water in which gross impurities are detected by either process is justly condemned as unfit for use, the reverse of this axiom by no means follows. There are many sources of error, and I will mention a few:

1st. Water analyzed to-day and found unobjectionable may easily become foul with pollution to-morrow. It is obviously impossible to analyze water every time we want a drink.

2d. Water purposely polluted with cholera and typhoid fever poison has been pronounced of good quality by chemical tests.

3d. Until we can recognize the germs of the various filth diseases, the biological analysis of water can give only negative results. There is every reason to hope that success will crown the painstaking efforts now being made to isolate and determine these poisonous germs: but even then their exclusion from our water supply must continue to be our only safeguard.

In the selection of a water supply, we should not be contented with an examination of the contour of the water-shed. It must be remembered that, in most sections of our State, the crust of the earth is of very recent formation—the result of denudation and atmospheric action upon the underlying rocks. These may, and, indeed, generally do, dip at a considerable angle to the surface. Surface drainage and subsoil drainage, therefore, are often in different or even opposite directions, and our calculations as to the area which supplies this or that water basin are frequently at fault. It must be evident, then, that we should have an accurate knowledge of the dip and strike of the water-bearing stratum. Nowhere could the services of a competent geologist or engineer be more profitably utilized than in the selection of a site for a water supply.

North Carolina is a well watered State, and our surface is not yet settled so thickly that a suitable area for a wholesome water supply cannot be found, in most cases, near a town. Such localities should be secured without delay, and zealously guarded against contamination. It needs no argument to convince a thinking man that this course is true economy. What ought to be done should, in all cases, be done at once. It is we who are interested in this matter, now in our own time and generation: for what does it avail us that our town is supplied with pure water ten years hence, if at that time it be remarked of us: "Ah, yes, I remember him well; he died of typhoid fever eight years ago." And it is an easy matter to so arrange the financial burden that part of it shall fall upon those who will hereafter participate in its benefits.

The purity of the water should be the first consideration. We must go to nature for this, and take advantage of her lavish generosity in this direction. In some cases springs may afford a sufficient supply, in others a large stream, in still others a neighboring lake. These failing, it may be there is an impervious stratum below our polluted water-shed, piercing which, we find an abundance of uncontaminated water. Such water is utilized in Brooklyn and Memphis, and is the hope of Newbern and Goldsboro in our own State.

Whatever the source, it cannot be too strongly emphasized, that it

must be pure, and must be kept pure. The drainage area of the snpply must be kept under the closest supervision, and the health authorities empowered to protect the many against the careless or wanton encroachments of the few.

Next in importance to purity is abundance of water supply. It has been well said that the true test of civilization is the consumption of water for domestic purposes. Although custom sanctions the practice, it is manifestly unwise, as well as unjust, to levy a tax on water for domestic use, and, without money and without price to the owner, pour a hundred or a thousand times as much into a burning building. Such a tax bears unequally upon the people, and is, in the case of the very poor, prohibitory. The latter, if possible, avoid using the taxed water. and resort to suspicious, if not certainly polluted, private sources of supply. A revolution of the present system can hardly be brought about immediately, but such a reduction of charges as will enable even the poorest to make ample use of pure, wholesome water is a sanitary necessity, and deserves the earnest consideration of town authorities everywhere. Sickness is impoverishment, health is wealth; and not only is the good name of a town injured, but the lives and health of the better classes are imperilled if filth diseases prevail among the poor.

The introduction of a wholesome and abundant water supply into a town is simply a question of money—not what it costs to obtain, but what it costs to do without. The inhabitants of a town must be short-sighted indeed, if they hesitate at any outlay which will prevent disease, increase their health and longevity, correspondingly augment their productive activity, and lessen their death-rate.

Vienna, in one year, decreased her mortality by typhoid fever from 341 to 11 per 100,000 by introducing spring-water in place of that drawn from the Danube river. Baltimore, Brooklyn, Memphis and other American cities have done equally well. How long would it take such a saving of life and health to balance the cost of the most expensive water-works?

Bad water affords a valid pretext for the use of alcoholic liquors to prevent its poisonous effects. If our prohibition friends deprive the poor man of his tipple, they should certainly aid in providing something more wholesome to supply its place. Apart from the encouragement and quasi-justification for the use of intoxicating beverages which unwholesome water furnishes, it is an established fact that polluted water causes more deaths, more sickness, more sorrow, misery and destitution than all the stills in the State.

Sanitation prescribes temperance in all things, and positive avoidance of morbific agencies. Compared to it, prohibition is a rush-light to the sun, an episode, a side-show to a great caravan. Sanitation once established as a governing principle in State and family, prohibition

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would naturally become a question of expediency to an elevated and enlightened public sentiment.

As has been mentioned above, the introduction of a public water supply has generally been with a view to protection from fire. Indeed, until within the past forty years, a connection between drinking-water and specific forms of disease was, at best, only suspected. Since sanitary science has positively demonstrated this causative relation, various expedients have been adopted in a futile effort to correct and remedy the impurities which are known to exist in established water supplies.

À brief mention of these expedients may prove interesting. The principal ones are sedimentation, seration, chemical precipitations, and various modifications and combinations of these processes. All of these are imitations of natural processes, and, of necessity, as imitations, fall short of the original.

Sedimentation takes place naturally in lakes and streams, and, on a smaller scale, in wells and springs. The particles of earthy matter, from their own weight, subside to the bottom, and along with them more or less of organic impurities. Storage reservoirs possess this advantage. and necessarily add much to the appearance and healthfulness of the water, their good effect being proportionate to their capacity and the length of time water is exposed to their influence. In seasons of unusual turbidity, no less than ten tons of earthy matter and one-half ton of decomposing organic substances are thus eliminated from the 20,000,000 gallons of lake-water which constitute the daily supply of Cleveland. Ohio. That the elimination of such a mass of putrescent filth is of the greatest advantage must be self-evident. Nevertheless, sedimentation is but a poor safeguard against disease. The infected water which prostrated twelve hundred of the eight thousand inhabitants of Plymouth. Pennsylvania, and killed one hundred and thirty, passed through three storage reservoirs to accomplish its deadly mission. Sedimentation is limited in its value and adaptability, and care must be taken to prevent stagnation in storage reservoirs.

Every one has noticed the greenish scum which generally covers a stagnant pond. If we follow the effluent of such a pond, we notice that very speedily the water becomes clear and sparkling, especially if there is enough descent to cause ripples or falls in the stream. This process has been successfully imitated by forced aration in some storage reservoirs, notably at Brooklyn, New York, where stagnation produced such a scum, and the filthy water was restored to a potable condition. The decomposition and destruction of the vegetable matter composing the scum, was effected by the oxygen in the air forced through it.

Chemical precipitation by means of alum, various salts of iron, lime, etc., etc., is a useful adjumant to sedimentation and filtration. It is not necessary to inquire whether the action of these agents is strictly chemical, or in part mechanical. They undoubtedly hasten the subsi-

dence of the grosser organic and inorganic impurities suspended in water, but cannot be depended upon to eliminate the specific germs of disease. These are so tenacious of their vitality that their destruction could be accomplished only by an amount of purifying agents, which would be of itself dangerous to human life.

Artificial filtration consists of the passage of water through beds of gravel, charcoal, coke or other porous substances. Theoretically, it is the most promising means for purifying water, and the result of the process, if properly conducted, is most gratifying to the eye and taste of the consumer; a perfectly limpid, appetizing water. The defect in artificial filtration is that it undertakes a thousand or even a million fold as much as nature. It has neither the time nor the surface to effect percolation after nature's method. More water passes through a filtering bed under strong pressure in an hour than nature purifies, on the same area, in one or more years. Some filters are arranged for a reversal of current and a scouring of the filtering material, and it is claimed that they are thus thoroughly cleansed. But who can confidently assert that such reversed current and even scouring will remove all the minute impurities which have been forced against the surface or entangled in the interstices of the filtering material? It is not denied that some organic matter remains after filtration, and it is only a natural inference, that owing to their minute size and great vitality, the germs of disease shall longest and most successfully resist elimination. The guarantee of a patent filtering company is worthless from a scientific, sanitary standpoint. A crucial test would be the prolonged use, by themselves and families, of water impregnated with typhoid and diphtheritic germs, and passed through their filter. They ought to have at least as much faith in their assertions as is shown by the veterinarian in England, who declares that hydrophobia exists only in the imagination of its victims, and, up to last accounts, had allowed himself to be bitten by 147 rabid dogs.

Filtration will probably remove malarial poison, and suffice to purify for drinking purposes the water from lakes and rivers. If these are of large size, we might reasonably hope, that if pollution existed it would be so diluted in a vast body of water as to be innocuous. And yet, Chicago, which derives it water supply from Lake Michigan, through a tunnel opening two miles from the shore, is about to extend the tunnel three miles further out to insure exemption from pollution.

The sum of our knowledge on the subject of artificial purification of water is thus tersely expressed by the English Commissioners: "Of all the processes which have been proposed for the purification of water polluted by excrementitions matters, there is not one which is sufficiently effective to warrant the use, for dietetic purposes, of water which has been so contaminated."

We may add: Water to which sewage has access, directly or indi-

rectly, by surface or subsoil drainage, should, from that fact alone, be excluded from all consideration as a possible source of water supply for drinking purposes.

The sanitary requirements of a public water supply are only two in number, viz.:

First.  $Purity—i.\ e.$ , absolute freedom from apparent and possible, both present and future, contamination and pollution. This necessitates undisputed control and watchful supervision of the water-shed and the surface area supplying it.

Second. Quantity—i. e., water in sufficient abundance and cheap enough to be used freely for domestic purposes by all classes. This requirement can only be met when the water works are owned by the town. Such ownership would result in the closing of private wells and springs, which are always liable to pollution.

Let us summarize the reports of the various public water supplies in the State, as furnished me by friendly correspondents, and see how these requirements are fulfilled.

Asheville,—Water taken from Swannanoa River, four miles above city. Stream is large, rising in the Black Mountains and flowing through a sparsely-settled and cultivated valley. Water occasionally turbid from rains. Filtered by Hyatt method, a combination of filtration with forced aeration and chemical sedimentation. Supply abundant. Works owned by the city. Meter rates, 25c. per 1,000 gallons. Average cost per year for a family of six persons, \$10. Not yet in general use by poorer classes. Water introduced only a year ago, but since its introduction a marked decrease of typhoid fever and enteric diseases is noted.

Charlotte.—Water-works established 1881–'82. Owned by a company. Source of supply on outskirts of town, from several small streams and ponds; also surface water. Storage reservoirs of 16,000,000 gallons capacity. Water often muddy and liable to pollution, as company has control of only a small area of water-shed. Average consumption. 265,000 gallons per day—a little over one-fourth capacity. Water rates, 50c. per 1,000 gallons. Average cost per year for a family of six persons, \$20. Not in general use by poorer classes, but increased health-fulness noticed among consumers.

Concord.—Supply taken from a remarkably pure spring near centre of town. No apparent connection with immediately surrounding area. Capacity, about thirty thousand gallons per day. Works owned by private individual. Water not in general use.

Durham.—Works owned by a company. Water introduced two years ago. Supply derived from several springs, six miles north of town, whose waters are impounded and collected into a reservoir. Surrounding country hilly and rocky, with sandy surface and clay subsoil. No habitations near. Reservoir closely fenced and whole works guarded. Water, after heavy rains, slightly turbid from clayey sediment. Capacity

four times greater than is demanded by present size of town. Water is pretty generally used—at least, by better classes. Meter rates, 40c. per 1,000 gallons. Average cost per year for family of six persons, \$16.

Fayetteville.—Present system of water-works introduced in 1824. Belongs to town. Supply is from springs just outside corporate limits. Water collected in a brick reservoir and conveyed through bored logs, connected by iron couplings. Capacity about eighty-five thousand gallons per day. In limited use. Rates, ......

Goldsboro.—No public water supply. Contract entered into by city with a Northern company to supply 2,000,000 gallons per day at a price for family consumption of \$5.50 per faucet, making average cost per year for a family of six persons at least \$15.00. Supply to be taken, if possible, from driven wells sunk below underlying marl stratum. This would probably be unobjectionable, but if water is taken from Little River its wholesomeness is questionable.

Greensboro.—Works established during the past year and belong to a company. Supply taken from springs one and one-half miles from centre of town, and beyond a creek, so as to be free from town drainage. Area supplying springs belongs to a private individual, with no dwellings, and mostly covered with forest. Supply limited and not yet much used. Water often muddy, ascribed to newness of storage reservoir, but as company proposes putting in a filter, there is probably surface drainage. Meter rates not to exceed 25 cents per 1,000 gallons. Average cost per year for a family of six persons \$10.00.

Raleigh.—Works owned by company. Supply taken from Walnut Creek, above any possible inflow of city drainage. Area of water-shed extensive, embracing both cultivated and woodland, and including part of the village of Cary. Special legislation has been obtained for the protection of stream and water-shed, but its great extent renders proper supervision difficult, if not impossible. Capacity ample for present needs. Direct service from pumps, with stand-pipe pressure for fire protection. Water filtered by Hyatt method. Storage reservoir for filtered water. Meter rates, 40 cents per 1,000 gallons. Average cost per year for family of six persons \$16.00.

Salem.—Water-works first established over one hundred years ago. Supply taken from springs of limited capacity and distributed in cisterns throughout the village. Superseded by present system in 1878. Works owned by a company. Supply derived from shallow wells, alongside the course of a stream which drains a section of Winston and Salem. Water always clear and tests have failed to detect connection with stream, or surface drainage. Storage reservoir for fire protection; direct service for ordinary consumption. Rates, 50 cents per 1,000 gallons. Average cost per year for family of six persons \$20.00. Absence of zymotic diseases noted among consumers.

Salisbury.-Works owned by a company. Supply taken from Cane

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Creek, two miles southeast of town, away from town drainage. Area supplying creek, largely cultivated ground. Water muddy and not used for drinking purposes.

Wilmington.—Works owned by a company. Water taken from Northeast River at its junction with the Cape Fear. River 450 feet wide at site of pumping-station. Subject to tidal influences. Located one mile or less above docks, shipping and sewers, and receives drainage from several cemeteries, slaughter-houses and a large part of the city, through a creek emptying into Northeast River one quarter of a mile above works. Rice fields on opposite side of river, and large guano works one mile above on Cape Fear river. Water discolored from swamps (cypress water), as is the case with nearly all river and pond water in Eastern Carolina. Supply unlimited. In only limited use for drinking purposes, though doubtless far more wholesome than the water in private wells. Meter rates, 20 cents per 1,000 gallons. Average cost per year for family of six persons, \$10.00.

Winston—Works owned by a company. Supply derived from shallow wells alongside of a stream draining mostly cultivated lands and old fields, and receiving surface water from the suburbs of Winston. A dam across the stream and above the wells arrests its flow and serves for pumping purposes. Water never muddy, and tests have failed to show any connection with adjoining stream. Supply more than equal to demand. Water not in general use by poorer classes. Absence of zymotic diseases noted amongst consumers. Meter rates, 50 cents per 1,000 gallons. Average cost per year for family of six persons, \$20.00.

As a model for comparison, I wish to describe the water supply of the Western North Carolina Insane Asylum. The water is taken from an impounded mountain stream, six miles from the asylum. The entire surface area of water-shed, which is covered with forest, is owned and guarded by the asylum authorities. Supply is ample for the present needs, and can be nearly doubled by erecting storage tanks in the upper part of the building. Service is direct, with a constant flow, and the water is free to the consumers.

Approaching nearest to the model set by the Western North Carolina Insane Asylum, we must place the Asheville water supply. Until the valley of the Swannanoa is well settled, the risk of pollution may be excluded, and the naturally pure water has the advantage of ceration afforded by the swift mountain stream. Durham and Greensboro<sup>8</sup> are next in the

<sup>\*</sup>Since writing the above, I am informed that the impounding reservoir of the Gree, shoro water works is part of an old mill poud, from the main body of which, and the stream supplying it, it is separated only by a bank of muck and earth taken out for the purpose of deepening it. This reservoir is liable to overflow of back-water, and is partly supplied by seapage, from both pend and stream. Such being the case, Greensboro must be placed far down on the list of doubtful or dangerous water supplies.

list, their water-sheds only requiring watchful supervision to maintain their integrity. They are at present virtually under control of the water companies and need only to become actually their property to fulfill the first requirement demanded by sanitation. Raleigh's supply depends for its safety upon the permanency of the lively appreciation of danger at present evinced by its health authorities.

Leaving Concord and Fayetteville out of consideration, because their supply is too limited to be generally utilized, we are compelled to place Winston, Salem, Salisbury, Charlotte and Wilmington in the doubtful list of water supplies, their risk from pollution, and their inability to avert the danger, increasing in the order in which they are mentioned. Without legislation they are all powerless to protect their water supply, while the last mentioned is besides at the mercy of influences beyond human control.

How well the second requirement is met I leave my readers to decide. How many poor families in our North Carolina towns can afford to pay a yearly water tax of \$15 or \$20, especially when it is considered that a plumber's bill of at least equal amount must precede the introduction of water to their premises?

I would not detract an iota from the praise justly merited by the public-spirited citizens who, realizing the necessity of their towns, and impatient with the apathy of municipal authorities and the general population, have invested their private means in the laudable undertaking to provide better protection from fire and superior water facilities. It is only just that these public benefactors should reap some reward besides the approval of a good conscience, and no man can grudge them the small dividends that are usually returned by such investments.

I can only repeat, that to enable all classes to make sanitary use of our public water supplies, the cost must be very much cheapened from the present figures, and the only way to accomplish this result, without injury and loss to individuals, is to vest the ownership of public waterworks in the town or city supplied by them.

If I have been followed, it must be evident that individual effort to preserve the purity of a water supply will not avail. Your well or spring may become polluted by your neighbor's privy or filthy premises, in spite of the strictest attention to cleanliness on your own domain. We have, to be sure, laws for the abatement of nuisances, and anything prejudicial to health may be complained of, and, if proved a nuisance, removed by process of law. The history of the expensive and prolonged litigations for the draining of mill-ponds in various localities in the State may be cited as instances of the cumbersome and inefficient action of the law. In practice, the law has become a prolific field for quarrels and fends, and an effective means to exhibit spite and ill-will. It is often more honored in the breach than in the observance, and many a

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man risks the lives and health of himself and family rather than complain of the filthy habits and practices of his neighbors.

Whether sanitary laws are disobeyed through ignorance, carelessness or perversity, by yourself or your neighbor, punishment comes, and is as apt to strike the innocent as the guilty. Indeed, in many instances, it is the innocent especially who suffer, for it seems that there is to some extent an immunity from filth diseases in individuals and families who do not know what it is to be clean. They become, as it were, acclimated to their surroundings, and thrive in a filth which would sicken and kill more sensitive and highly organized natures. To these they become producers and purveyors of diseases from which they may be themselves exempt.

Communities demand protection from such influences, and appoint sanitary inspectors and boards of health, but by limiting their expenditures and crippling their executive powers by restrictive legislation, the object and aim of their existence is thwarted, if not entirely abrogated.

For the successful conduct of any business, a knowledge of his duty, executive ability and responsibility are required of an employee. How much more are these necessary in the maintenance of life and health—the business of mankind in this world, next in importance only to the salvation of the soul? Yet, how often do we see in a community a health officer appointed, not for his knowledge and fitness for the duty, but because his services, such as they are, can be obtained for the least money? Some communities, indeed, have no health officer, but entrust their sanitation to the mercy of a sanitary policeman, usually an igao rant hireling, whose principal recommendation is, perhaps, his known disregard for the nuisances he is expected to abate.

That we may know what we are about, we should first ascertain the facts as to the existence and prevalence of disease in our State. While it may prove difficult, perhaps impossible, to carry out in the rural districts, a system of death records and burial certificates should be enforced in every incorporated community, and the presence of contagious and infectious disease immediately reported to the constituted authorities. The physician who attends a case of such disease should be held responsible for its isolation and the disinfection of the excreta and surroundings of the patient. In this way only can our atmosphere and soil and water be kept free from the germs which cause and propagate disease. The health officer must prevent the accumulation and superintend the removal of garbage and filth, including the contents of closets and cesspools, in private as well as public premises. To accomplish this, he must be clothed with indisputable authority, and penalties should attach to those who obstruct him in his work, as well as to his failure to carry out these essential sanitary regulations. Returns at stated intervals should be made to the State Board of Health, one of whose functions it should be to direct and control the enforcement of the sanitary laws and hold to personal accountability its transgressors. As at present constituted, the State Board of Health is simply an advisory body, with no executive powers and only limited responsibility.

The public water supplies should be guarded with especial care by the local authorities, but in many instances these would be powerless without the co-operation of the authorities of the State. This is shown by the action of Raleigh in securing special legislation to prevent the pollution of its source of water supply. Without such legislation, every public water supply in the State, located outside the corporate limits of a town, is completely at the mercy of every ignorant or wanton trespasser. In Massachusetts, the law prohibits the drainage of any polluted substance into a stream within twenty miles above the place where it is used for a water supply, and gives the supervision of public water supplies to the State Board of Health. The approval of the board is a legal requirement for the introduction of every system of water supply or sewerage.

The report of the committee on the pollution of water supplies which was read at the annual meeting of the American Public Health Association at Milwaukee, Wisconsin, November 20th-23d, 1888, and from which I have made some extracts in this paper, concludes: "It is the well considered belief of this Association that it is an imperative necessity, that State Legislatures should give their boards of health that financial support which would enable them to act intelligently on all questions pertaining to the public water supply, investing them at the same time with the supervision of the said supplies, and with power to preserve these waters from contamination by sewage or other injurious matters."

It may be objected that a sanitary law, such as I have outlined, would be too costly. It may cost the one hundredth part of what is annually lost to the State by typhoid fever alone, and perhaps approximate or possibly slightly exceed the one four hundredth part of the entire loss by preventable diseases. If it did not annually save one hundred times its cost, it would be a dismal failure.

If we look at what has been accomplished elsewhere, these statements will not seem unwarranted. In Michigan the saving of life from scarlet fever in the last eleven years amounted to 3,718; and in 1886 appropriate sanitary measures saved the lives of 298 persons, who, under the usual conditions, and according to former epidemics, would have died of diphtheria in a few localities. In Memphis, the death-rate has been reduced in six years from 35 per 1,000 to 23.8 per 1,000. In Chicago, the death-rate has been reduced in the last five years from 36 to 19.46 per 1,000, a saving of nearly 20,000 lives.

Let us take a lesson from Florida. Last winter a case of yellow fever was smuggled into Key West. There was only a nominal board of health in the State, and the physician who attended the patient, just as is the case in our State, was under no responsibility to report the nature

of the disease. Other cases appeared in various parts of the State, and the facts were suppressed. It was nobody's business to let the truth be known. Need I recall the terror and panic of the people of Florida, the horrified amazement of the rest of the country when it learned that nearly the whole State was infected by the dreaded pestilence? Leaving out the deaths and sickness, the mere money loss to the State from the suspension of business and the depreciation of the value of property, can only be reckoned by millions, while the confidence of the civilized world received a shock from which it will take years to recover. A properly constituted board of health would have had timely notice of the first case, and stamped out the disease before it became epidemic. It is needless to say that the first care of the Florida Legislature will be the establishment of a model State board of health.

Until the year 1885 the Legislature of the great State of Pennsylvania entertained the quite prevalent opinion that sanitation was a local affair, and restricted their sanitary legislation to the larger cities. Then came the Plymouth epidemic, and, as a result, a State board of health. Do we in this State need a similar lesson?

The North Carolina Board of Health need the moral and financial support of the people of the State to carry out their mission. If these are given grudgingly, only niggardly returns can be expected. Give them enough to prosecute their noble work, and if they fail to fulfill their promise and your expectations, they will deserve to be cast out as unprofitable servants.

The moral aspect of sanitation has been incidentally touched upon. If I point a loaded pistol at a fellow-man, and pull the trigger, I commit a murder. If I knowingly allow that man to be exposed to a disease which takes his life, am I innocent of his death? Human law may enonerate me, but how can I plead at the bar of God and my own conscience? The laws of life and health are plain and simple. They are the laws of God; we know them; happy are we if we do them. The time has come in modern civilization when ignorance and indifference cannot be pleaded in excuse for neglecting the enactment and enforcement of sanitary laws.

In ghastly mockery of the words of hope and resignation graven on the tombstones of our loved ones, who have succumbed to preventable diseases, we see standing out in letters of fire, which should scorch and sear our consciences: "Strangled by filth!" "Killed by wilful ignorance and neglect!"

The deaths from preventable diseases in this State are simply murders, and we are left to decide in how far each of us is answerable to the just Judge of all for the crime.

The ignorance and indifference, the fatal blunders of the past, cannot be remedied; we cannot recall the dead; but if to-day we mend our ways and heed the sanitary demands of the living, our loved and lost ones will not have suffered and died in vain.

## THE DUTIES AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS OF HEALTH.

By J. L. TUCKER, M. D., Member of N. C. Board of Health.

Dr. Mapother, in his "Lectures on Public Health," defines "Hygiene or Sanitary Science" to be "an application of the laws of physiology and general pathology to the maintenance of the health and life of communities by means of those agencies which are in common and constant use." The law, recognizing the utility of a science thus defined, gives to the several counties in this State local boards of health, whose executive officers are to be chosen from the physicians legally qualified to practice, and are to be known as County Superintendents of Health. The "Duties and Responsibilities" appertaining to this office are subjects to which I would ask your brief attention.

The act regulating the duties of this important office may be briefly summarized:

It shall be his duty to collect vital statistics, to make medico-legal post-mortem examinations for coroners' inquests, to attend prisoners in jail, poor house and house of correction, and to make examination of lunatics for commitment. He shall be the sanitary inspector of the jail and poor-house of his county, making monthly statements to the board of commissioners. The duties are further enlarged and the responsibilities increased so as to bring, with the advice of the local board of health, the important matter of inland quarantine under his control. Diseases dangerous to public health, viz.: Small-pox. searlet fever, yellow fever, and cholera are to be quarantined and isolated at the expense of the county, town or city in which they occur. It shall be his duty to abate nuisances: and finally, the important matter of vaccination is committed to his care.

The field thus outlined is broad enough, and the soil sufficiently fertile to invite occupancy, with a promise of a rich harvest, no: alone to the physician and sanitarian, but as well to the philanthropist and public-spirited citizen.

The system of medical and sanitary inspection, as applied to our jails, almshouses and houses of correction, has already yielded fruits of a most gratifying character, and the increased interest this matter is receiving at the hands of our Superintendents, in more detailed reports to the *Monthly Bulletin*, promises still greater results, which, from the very nature of the work, must commend it to the support of all good people throughout the State. But unfortunately, many of our counties are without health boards, and their public institutions are left without the care and superintendence of health officers.

It is almost incredible in this enlightened age, in which all the lines

of art and science are advanced-an age so prolific of good works-that there should be a penal institution or a house of alms in the State in which the inmates are denied the blessings of sunlight, pure air and wholesome food; and vet, sickening and revolting as the recital is, such enormities are being constantly brought to the notice of the medical profession, some of whose members have been prompt in language, caustic and eloquent, to expose and denounce these cruelties. It has been but a short while since a distinguished President of the North Carolina Medical Society, in his annual message to that body, directed public attention to this matter. Describing his visit to a North Carolina city, where he found a singular blending of "wealth and religion." piety and sin, in a city partly noted for the culture, elegance and refinement of her citizens, he thus describes his visit to the jail: "Inside an encircling brick wall, pierced by two small windows, was an iron cage, twelve feet square and twelve feet high; the cage was divided by one iron floor into two stories; each of these was subdivided into two cells and a passage way. After my eyes had become accustomed to the dim light, I counted twenty-four human beings huddled in these confined quarters. They were clothed in rags, and a few tattered pieces of blankets and sacks constituted their bedding. Many of these poor wretches had laid there for many months awaiting trial for petty offences: the place was reeking with filth, and the stench was beyond description. Every sanitary necessity was absent."

Other gentlemen, in language no less pungent, have directed attention to these foul blots upon our civilization, and to our county superintendents of health belongs the duty of redressing the wrongs. Let it not for a moment be supposed that our superintendents will fail in their duty. Frequent inspections, with detailed statements to the county commissioners, and given to the public through the Monthly Bulletin, setting forth the sanitary need of each and every public building, with suggestions as to the hygienic needs of the inmates, will arouse a sentiment in the counties which officials dare not oppose. Failing in this, let us take the matter to our grand juries, and in official capacity deliver them homilies on public hygiene, setting forth the dangers of overcrowding, foul air, impure water, and unwholesome food, and in the name of a common civilization, demand an abatement of these nuisances. The need of greater oversight upon the one thousand resident insane in the several counties cannot be too strongly emphasized. A register setting forth age, residence, cause and type of insanity, with frequent reports to the county commissioners as regards conditions, wants and needs of these people, will go far towards securing for them the care and treatment which an enlightened and civilized people are expected to bestow on the ignorant, helpless and unfortunate. These questions involve grave

<sup>\*</sup>Dr. H. T. Bahnson, meeting of Medical Society at Charlotte, 1888.

responsibilities, and are important enough to command the best executive ability and the profoundest medical and sanitary knowledge.

Let it not be said, as has been said recently by a distinguished alienist, that "those\* under county care are daily passing downward, by steady stages, to the level of hopeless alienation in such accumulating numbers that humanity sickens at the conception, both at what they endure now and what life has in store for them, and all who hold them dear." Let us urge upon our county commissioners the need of better facilities at our almshouses for the care and treatment of the insane, especially for those who are awaiting commitment into the asylums of the State, and as far as possible, let us use our efforts to ameliorate their conditions. Earnest, intelligent and brave endeavor on the part of our superintendents will remove present evils.

There are other fields to which the labors of our health officers can be profitably carried. The subject of public school education, to which the masses of our people are looking with so much interest, and the impetus which this important work will receive by the passage of the Blair bill. now pending before the National Congress, must render the matter of school inspection, by competent and trained sanitarians, of paramount importance. We are fast getting away from the traditional log school house, with its open crevices, its large chimney and its roaring fire, and in its place we are substituting frame buildings, tightly ceiled, with all possible defects of ventilation, and heated by that greatest curse of the age-the modern stove. To-day, in many of the rural districts, we have a number of school buildings, twenty feet square and ten feet pitch giving a total air space of about 4,000 cubic feet, in which forty pupils are being taught—just a little over 100 feet per capita of air space, and, with no other method of air displacement, except through a raised window or open door, the temperature at one moment sending the mercury to the roasting point and in the next lowering it to freezing. What an admirable opportunity is here offered to the medical expert in the study of the causative effect of foul air, cold draughts, and varying temperature in the production of winter catarrhs, to say nothing of the more serious lesions of pleurisy and pneumonia; and what a volume of interesting facts might be gathered in the study of the personal history of each individual pupil, as regards the development of pulmonary consumption, or the long list of nervous ailments, which neurologists trace directly to such influence. It can scarcely be expected that a costly and cumbrous system of inspection should be given in the present development of our school system. But as physicians and sanitarians, we can properly and profitably advise as to the location, size and arrangement of these buildings, grounds, drainage and water supply; methods of supplying sunlight, so as to minimize dangers to the eyes;

<sup>\*</sup>Eugene Grissom, M. D., LL, D., report Ral-igh Insane Asylum.

furniture (seats and desks) adapted to all ages and sizes, and at the same time direct attention to the more salient points of danger to the health of the inmates.

In illustration of this point, I will mention that a few years ago, in the county of Vance, near the village of Townsville, an epidemic of typhoid fever occurred in the neighborhood school. There were more than ten cases (cannot be accurate as to numbers) in an enrolled school of about twenty-eight pupils. Dr. Wm. R. Wilson, a most competent and skillful physician and sanitarian, failing, after a most vigorous search, to find any possible cause for the epidemic, in the several homes of the pupils. carried his investigations to the school premises. Here he learned that many of the pupils had suffered during the year from diarrhoea, dysentery and other ailments, and that the session had been unprofitable to scholar and teacher alike. An examination of the surroundings disclosed a polluted spring as the source of contagion. The ground overlying the spring was covered with undergrowth, and had been used by the school for months as a "privy walk," and here we had soil saturation, or possibly excretal washings direct, water pollution, and as a necessary consequence, that disease of filth, typhoid fever. The nuisance was abated, a new supply of water secured, the epidemic stopped, and Dr. Wilson ever afterwards became a most active and zealous advocate of preventive medicine. It is a source of real regret that another State is to-day receiving the labor and teachings of this faithful and accomplished physician, whose first interest in public hygiene dates from this little incident. Doubtless, similar instances might be reported from other portions of the State, all calling more eloquently than words for medical and sanitary inspection.

Let us urge our superintendents to give to each and every school in their respective counties one careful and thorough inspection annually, and to file with the Superintendent of Instruction a report of the same, setting forth clearly whatever suggestions may appear necessary to promote the health and comfort of the school.

The subject of vaccination in our public schools should address itself more to our superintendents of health. I cannot, in the limits of this paper, recount the many arguments in favor of vaccination, and, indeed, to physicians such arguments are unnecessary, but as we are honored to-day by the presence of so many distinguished laymen, I hope I will be pardoned for recalling the well authenticated immunity enjoyed by the German army in the Franco-Prussian war.

The Germans never do things by halves. They believe in preventive medicine and practice it, in its highest and fullest sense, and in nothing is the strength of this proposition more beautifully exemplified than in the matter of vaccination. By statutory provision every infant is required to be vaccinated before it attains the age of one year; the child is revaccinated at twelve, and the subject who comes to discharge his

military obligation to the sovereign is again revaccinated, the operation being repeated until the surgeon is satisfied that the person is insusceptible to vaccinia. The German army may, therefore, be regarded as a thoroughly vaccinated body of men. In France, on the other hand, vaccination and revaccination is not compulsory; perhaps it is done or not, as the danger of an epidemic may determine. During the war small pox prevailed to an alarming extent, and both armies were equally exposed to the contagion, with the following results: The French army, scarzely more than one-half the strength of the German, suffered the frightful mortality of 23,468 from small-pox, while the German army suffered the insignificant loss of 263 men.

Another instance, quite as convincing, may be cited of Zurich, Switzerland. With a compulsory vaccination law in force, small-pox was entirely stamped out and for years was unknown, and yet, in three years after the repeal of the law, the death-rate shows 85 from small-pox in 1,000 deaths from all causes, or about one-twelfth of all deaths were from small-pox. Can any same person require stronger proof of the prophylactic power of vaccination against small-pox?

The immunity enjoyed by our State for the past two decades from small-pox epidemics has lulled the people into a state of security utterly unwarranted by the history of the disease. Of the nineteen hundred and fifteen persons committed to the jails, as reported to the Bulletin for the past six months, only three hundred and seventy-three give evidence of successful vaccination—about one in five. A conservative estimate would place more than four hundred thousand of our people without this great prophylactic, and it is high time the importance of this matter was being pressed upon the attention of health officer, physician and the general public.

The advancement of public hygiene in this country for the past twenty years, has been due largely to the increased attention given by the State and county boards of health to the collection, preservation, classification and publication of vital statistics.

The chief statistics bearing on public health are of deaths, births and marriages. With these reports should be bulletins announcing all diseases dangerous to public health—especially those of an epidemic character. There are few persons who will question the value of such statistics, not alone to physicians and sanitarians, but as well to politicians, legislators, business men, and the citizens at large. Without a knowledge of the number of persons dying, the locality and cause of such deaths, it is impossible to know when sanitary remedies are needed, or, indeed, what remedies are to be applied. Without a comparison of the death and birth rate, it is impossible to form an idea of the "ebb or flow of the tide of human life," or as Dr. Billings so strongly expresses it: "Protection to public health cannot be given wisely without a knowledge of the persons and places who stand most in need of it, and

this knowledge can only be obtained by a systematic, complete and continued registration of the births and deaths in every community of the State; such registration is, as it were, the eyes of the State Board of Health, and without it the board is like a blind man fighting a prairie fire." The statistics already collected in this State are suggestive, but are too meagre to admit of much valuable discussion. We are behind other States in this important matter, and few questions can engage your attention to-day more profitably.

Without suggesting a plan by which this important branch of the service can be perfected. I can express the belief "that where there is a will there is a way." Different States have different plans, some better than others, but none are perfect. No one at all acquainted with the workings of the North Carolina Health Board will, for a moment, doubt that the genius and wisdom of her executive officer will bring "order out of chaos," and in the near future unfold to us the details of a plan that will secure to us complete and accurate returns of births, deaths and marriages in every city, town and county in the State. With such statistics the board will demonstrate to you what sanitary science, practically applied, is capable of accomplishing, and that it is not, as has been said, "a mere jumble of unproved hypotheses."

The present law under which our statistics are collected displays its weakness in its great elasticity. An amendment here and there of a primitive character, to bear equally upon superintendents, county officials, doctors, midwives, undertakers, and the heads of families, will have a most salutary effect in removing existing evils. But the question may be pertinently asked: What are you going to give in return for such exactions from doctors, county officials, and the people at large? The answer is simple. If we were to apply the money test as to the value of the life of each citizen who dies from a preventable disease, as suggested by Dr. Farr, and corroborated by the veteran sanitarian, Edwin Shadwick, of England, it would make a sum so large that capitalists would be startled. It is enough for us to say that the amount saved to the State, as thus demonstrated, is so enormous that the most visionary dreams of speculation can offer nothing so alluring. But this is the weaker side of the question.

In return we promise dimin shed sickness, improved health, increased longevity, and the resultant blessings of happy and cheerful homes for every man, woman and child in North Carolina. "With decreasing mortality, there comes increasing longevity." Statisticians tell us that the duration of human life has been advanced from twenty-eight and below to forty-one years, under the ordinary workings of sanitary law, and that if mortality can be reduced to fifteen per thousand, and maintained at that figure, that the rate will be advanced to fifty-four years; and if we can reach eight per thousand, as suggested by the distinguished Dr. Richardson, in his beautiful picture of the ideal City of Hygeia, with

her broad streets, lovely courts and faultless drains, her extended parks and silvery lakes and pure water, it will carry it up towards ninety.

The application of sound sanitary laws, as applied to the military forces in England, notably to the Royal Guards, shows a reduction of twenty per thousand to six and five-tenths, and under more rigid enforcement in the German army, the rate has been lowered to only five-per thousand, with almost a total exemption from dysentery, diarrhea, typhus and typhoid fever. And so in England and Wales, statistics, as applied to the people at large, show a reduction of the death-rate from forty per thousand to twenty, and in localities where sanitary details are practically and systematically administered, even as low as fifteen per thousand. Similar results can be obtained in this country, in our own State and for our own people; and as guardians of the public health, charged with the sacred trust of saving human life and lessening human suffering, we should press the importance of these matters upon the people, and arouse a sentiment commensurate with the great interests involved.

Lord Derby, years ago, felt the need of popular aid in solving the problem of public hygiene, when he declared that "no sanitary improvement worth the name will be effective, whatever acts you pass, or whatever powers you confer on public officers, unless you create an intelligent interest in the matter among the people at large."

Let our county superintendents of health take this great lesson to heart, and in all matters affecting public health, let them assume leadership and teach the people the great benefits and blessings that follow when sanitary laws are wisely administered.

## SOME GAINS FROM SANITATION.

By J. W. Jones, M. D., President N. C. Board of Health.

Advance in civilization is founded on enlightened self-interest. The people have a right to protest against any demands on them unless there be promise of profitable returns, and to demand of the government the protection of their lives, their health, and their fortunes.

The real health of a people is not counted by its gold, silver and acres. These are sources of material and physical greatness; above these, as high as the heaven is above the earth, as a simpler question of value, is the health of the people. Here is the manhood, the real civilization, the source of its content, happiness, and its good will to men.

The best interest of the State is absolutely dependent on the family relation, and these on the Godliness, good order, and cleanliness of the individual. The greater part of the health of a nation is that income which is the outcome of national health. Public health, then, should be, as Lord Beaconsfield years ago expressed it, of the first consideration to the State, and should have the first care of the statesman. The prosperity of the State is the aggregate of the average prosperity of its citizens, and every increase of individual prosperity, every dollar earned by the citizen, is so much earned for the State; or, every detraction from the individual prosperity, of his time, or his money, or even his life, is so much taken from the States' social capital. And equally true is it, that all a man earns over enough for his living is so much added to the public capital; or that his living cost more from any cause than his earnings, that deficit is that much loss to the commonwealth; so, then, in the case of the premature death of a productive individual, his death is a withdrawal of so much productive industry from the State; or in case of his sickness, the suspension of such income as that would come from his labors if he were in good health. And so it follows, that as to man's ability to make available the forces of nature and the resources of the country, will be the value of the lands, and that any detraction from the citizen's ability is that detraction from the land's value.

Mr. Farr estimates the value of a Norfolk agricultural laborer at £246, and that of a professional man at £300. In that of a minor it is the deferred annuity, which represents the probable earnings of his manhood minus the amount spent in his maintenance during his unproductive childhood. Taking the relations of the different ages, their occupations and conditions, he has undertaken the laborious task of averaging these various factors to reach the mean value of the individual. From the statistics furnished him by the English Government, he makes the approximate minimum inherent money value in the united kingdom of every man, woman and child at £159, or \$795 a head. In the United

States, under conditions of higher interest and wages, on Mr. Farr's estimates, his money value is put at \$1,000, but more than this by some.

Vital statistics are made up from the reports of deaths, births, marriages, diseases and any other matter that pertains to the health of a people. The present value of a person is his future earnings, minus his necessary outgo in realizing these earnings.

From a study of carefully kept vital statistics, and tables of present values of annuities, the health and wealth of a country can be calculated with great accuracy.

If the present value of a person is \$500 a year, and that person dies twenty years sooner than the natural termination of the life of a healthy working life-time, the loss to the community is the present value of the annuity of \$500, with the interest for twenty years; or, if he should be sick, the cost of the lost time is a withdrawal of so much from the public capital, together with the cost of his living, nursing, medical attention, and medicine during his illness.

The advances made in the arts and sciences, the incidents of war, and the destruction of life by disease in the great armies of the world, and the great epidemics, first lead the way to the study of sanitation. The appalling disaster by disease in the past Crimean campaign has been turned into a victory to military sanitary science. The ravages of typhus fever in badly ventilated shipholds and prisons attracted the attention of the philanthropist, John Howard, and lead sanitary physicians to look to the construction of buildings in regard to disease. The pale faces and unsteady walk of the operatives, doomed to live in the badly ventilated and badly lighted houses and factories, was everywhere seen. So much had the public mind become impressed by these conditions, that in 1802 England manifested her recognition of the needed sanitary reform by the passage of a series of legislative acts for the whole kingdom. This was the beginning of our present system of State medicine.

In 1847 Mr. Chadwick made his great report to the Government "on the sanitary condition of the laboring classes," and so great was the impression made by this report that it resulted in the revising of the old poor law which had been in existence ever since the reign of Elizabeth, and had grown to be a burden instead of a relief to the poor. This revision has served as a foundation and a guide, not only for England, but for all other enlightened nations as well, and from its date preventive medicine became a distinct branch of learning. To day every enlightened government has its health department, nearly every state in our Union has its State and local boards of health, and in most of our schools and universities sanitary science is taught as a part of the course of instruction. Where sanitary science has been taught, and its regulations applied, there has been a corresponding lowering of the sick and death rate.

To the question, "What are some of the gains by sanitation?" we

shall pass a reference to the sentiments of grief for the dead that should not have died, and for the sick that should not have been sick, and the joys for the saved from death and sickness, and reply only to that part of the question that can be answered in the language of figures.

Before the flood the average length of life was between 700 and 800 years. After the flood it gradually fell till it went down to 18 or 20 years; as learning revived, length of life increased. At the time of the beginning of the sanitary reform it was about 27 in England. At this time it is about 45 years.

The length of life in the reign of Victoria has increased 10 per 1,000, from 35 to 45. The government of this great and good Queen has ever been a friend to the reform; her Prince Consort Albert was ever pleased to promote it.

Dr. McVail, in his presidential address before the Sanitary Association of Scotland, last year, said in substance, that the death-rate in England and Wales in 1861 was 22.595 per 1,000, and in 1885 it was 19.310 per 1,000, and that the reduction between the years of 1861 and 1885 would make an annual saving in England and Wales, with a population of 30,000,000, of 100,000 lives. In American money, estimating each life at \$1,000, and 20 cases of serious sickness to the death, at a cost in lost time, medicine, doctor's bill, nursing, food and rent of \$100, the saving was annually \$300,000,000; and that the children in one year have now divided among them nearly two millions of years of life more than would have been the case 35 years ago.

In London within the last century the death-rate has been reduced from 50 to 22 per 1,000, a gain of 28; in 1884, that of her contagious diseases from the average of 5.25 to 3.4.

In France, within this century, the average length of life has been increased 10 years, an aggregate of four hundred millions of years for the whole population.

Mr. Chadwick, in a paper on military sanitation, gives the following rates of deaths and gains in the great armies of Europe:

In the guards a quarter of a century ago the death-rate was 20 per 1,000, now it is 6½; while that of the home army was 17 per 1,000, reduced to 8. The rate of the whole English army, home and abroad, is 17. Germany has the lowest death-rate of any nation, namely, 5 or 6 per 1,000. In France, it is 10 per 1,000. In Austria, it is 11 per 1,000; for the whole nation 32. In Italy, 11 per 1,000. In Russia, 18 per 1,000, three times heavier than Germany. In these United States, 9 per 1,000; the nation 19. The men in the army are healthier than the class at home from which they were drawn, due to strictly applied sanitary regulations.

The actual mortality of both armies in the late civil war from all causes, from May, 1861, to June, 1866, was 304,369; killed in battle and died of wounds, 143,969; died from sickness, 360,400, in both armies.

At this the whole civilized world stands amazed and appalled, and justly so. It was the work of the demon of war, and yet our annual loss of life by preventable sickness, taking our population at this time to be 60,000,000, is 120,000, almost equal annually to what it was by diseases, killed in battle, and died from wounds in our late civil war in both armies, which was 126,000 annually.

There has been the most extraordinary gains by antisepticism since 1880, when Pasteur first saw the microbe of puerperal fever. It is seen in every department of medicine, but more especially in obstetrics and surgery. One case will serve our purpose to-day. In La Maternite. Paris, there is a line on the wall showing the total death-rate of women confined in that hospital from 1792 to 1886. The record is divided into three periods; the first that of inaction, in which the mortality was from 9.3 to 20 per cent.; the second, the battle of hygiene against infection and contagion, with a mortality of 2.3; and third, the victory of antisepticism, with a mortality of less than 1 per cent.

The gains from vaccination have been accumulating since the day of Jenner. In Paris, where the laws requiring vaccination are feebly enforced, the mortality from small-pox is from 10 to 136 to the 1,000: while in the German cities, where vaccination laws are enforced, the death-rate is but 1.44: in London, under compulsory laws, it is but 6 to the 1,000: while in parts of Switzerland, it runs up to 8 and 10 to the 1,000. The possibility of protective inocculation in other diseases is yet unknown. There are promises that in the near future its triumphs will be as great in some other diseases as it has been in small-pox.

Some years ago Messrs. Simons and Chadwick made the estimate that England and Wales lost annually 200,000 lives from preventable causes; France, 250,000; and Spain, 190,000. Mr. Billings estimates the loss of the United States at 100,000 on the census of 1850. These figures mean, that the United States loses annually of her citizens who should be saved, 100,000, at a money loss in deaths and sickness of \$300,000,000 on the census of 1850, counting the cost of the dead at \$1,000 and each case of sickness at \$100.

North Carolina, with an estimated population of one and one-half millions, has annually, from preventable sickness, 3,000 deaths and 60,000 cases of serious sickness, at a money loss of \$3,000,000 for deaths and \$6,000,000—a loss of \$6 a head for every man, woman and child. The present death-rate of Raleigh is 38.4. Suppose we reduce this death-rate just one in the 1,000 this year, we save 15 lives and prevent 300 cases of sickness, and save \$45,000. These figures show that one in every 500 of our population of 50,000,000, or one-fifth of one per cent. die that should not die; and that one in every 25 of our population are sick who should not be sick.

Sir James Paget thinks, from estimates made from reliable data, from

reports of the benevolent and charitable institutions of England, that the annual loss of time in the United Kingdom is about one-fortieth of the working time, or nine days a year, for every man, woman and child between the ages of 16 and 65 years old.

We shall take it that two-fifths of the people of North Carolina are between the ages of 16 and 65 years old; then North Carolina, with a population of one and one-half millions, loses annually by sickness 9,000,000 days' work, and putting the cost of lost time, living and nursing during sickness, medicine and medical bills at \$2 per day, \$18,000,000. Raleigh, with an estimated population of 15,000, loses 9,000 days' work, in money value \$18,000. The larger part of these losses could and should be prevented.









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